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THE TOWER



THE CITY WALLS

ILLUSTRATED LONDON,

OR

A SERIES OF VIEWS

IN THE

BRITISH METROPOLIS AND ITS VICINITY,

ENGRAVED BY

ALBERT HENRY PAYNE,

FROM ORIGINAL DRAWINGS.

THE HISTORICAL, TOPOGRAPHICAL AND MISCELLANEOUS
NOTICES,

BY

W. I. BICKNELL.

“ ————— THIS SPLENDID CITY
How wanton sits she, amidst nature’s smiles ;
Nor from her brightest turret has to view,
But golden landscapes, and luxuriant scenes,
A waste of wealth, THE STORE-HOUSE OF THE WORLD.”
YOUNG.

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The THAMES, having passed Gravesend, and left Tilbury Fort on the left, hurries on to Sheerness, where he receives additional strength just above the Nore, by the principal arm of the Medway, his last tributary ; but the smaller arm of this river called the Smale, dividing the Isle of Sheppey from the main land of Kent, joins the Thames at Whitstable.

And now FATHER THAMES, meeting with those charming *Sea-nymphs* of the British channel, whom he has, with such constancy, *wooed*, twice in every twenty-five hours, for so many ages, and falling into their embraces, we there leave *Him*, having followed him during his long wanderings, from his source to this estuary.

The whole length of the Thames may be thus stated :—

	Miles.
Length of the Churn	20
From the junction of the Churn with the Lech	9
To the junction of the Windrush	14
To the junction of the Charwell	13
To the junction of the Thame	16
To the junction of the Kennet	22
To London-bridge	70
To the Sea	56
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Total	220

THE TOWER.

No place in the metropolis, or perhaps throughout the British empire, better deserves notice than the Tower of London. Once the palace of kings, its remote history stands connected

with royalty and splendour, always the attendants of a court. Within its walls, impregnable as they were regarded, princes, surrounded with their courtiers, could revel in safety, even in troubrous times. And when, from a palace, the Tower degenerated into a state prison—a royal bastile and inquisition—the place became, perhaps, even more interesting than formerly. For if the walls of the buildings could trumpet out the wanton and extravagant revelry of kings, many of the walls likewise could tell, in doleful accents, those tales of woe which would soften the most obdurate heart, and deluge the eyes with tears of blood. From the eleventh century to the present time, this fortress has had a very diversified history to recount.

The noisy mirth of a court is but evanescent, but the *mementos* of suffering prisoners, whether incarcerated for civil or spiritual offences, are not so easily obliterated. Many of the wailings, no doubt, of kings, queens, princes, nobles, confessors, and other sufferers, have never reached any other ear than that of the Lord of Sabaöth; yet there are ample materials for filling volumes with the history of human woe which has taken place within this *Golgotha*, much of which even the walls still bear the impress.

Here the broken-hearted captive has been heard to make his moan—

“ Of comfort no man speaks :
Let's talk of graves of worms, and epitaphs ;
Make dust our paper, and with *rainy* eyes
Write sorrow on the bosom of the earth.
Let's choose executors, and talk of wills :—
And yet not so,—for what can we bequeath,
Save our departed bodies to the ground ? ”

Here kings themselves may have exclaimed :—

“ For heaven’s sake, let us sit upon the ground,
And tell sad stories of the death of kings :—
How some have been deposed —————
Some haunted by the ghosts they have depos’d ;
————— some sleeping, kill’d ;
All murder’d ! ”

King Richard II.

Where shall we begin the catalogue of those who have been prisoners in the Tower ? In the time of Edward I. the Tower was ever full. The Jews, the Welsh, and the Scots, were alike his victims. In 1305 the noble Wallace entered these walls only to be dragged to an ignominious execution in Smithfield. Sir John Oldcastle (Lord Cobham), having been a prisoner here for some time, managed to escape, but being again apprehended, he was burned to death in a miserable manner, at St. Giles’s. He was among the first who suffered for English Protestantism. The history of the *Wars of the Roses* was written in blood, shed within the precincts of the Tower. Henry VI., and his ill-fated queen, Margaret, were both confined here at the same time, being divided only by the walls of their prison. The king perished in secrecy. A butt of malmsey was, within the Tower, made the instrument of death to the Duke of Clarence. The ghosts of the infant Edward V. and his murdered brother, the Duke of York, long called for vengeance. The Tower during the wretched reign of Henry VIII. was filled with victims. The first was Edward, Duke of Buckingham. The learned, excellent, but facetious More, and the crippled but lion-hearted Bishop Fisher soon followed, for denying the new doctrine of supremacy. Sir Thomas More, on his entrance, having, according to the barbarous custom of the times, had his uppermost garment demanded of

him by the porter, gave the *fellow* his cap. The venerable catholic prelate, Fisher, now nearly eighty years of age, wrote a letter to the chancellor (Cromwell), in which are these touching words :—“ Furthermore I beseech you to be good master in my necessity ; for I have neither shirt, nor suit, nor yet other clothes that are necessary for me to wear, but that be ragged and rent too shamefully. Notwithstanding, I might easily suffer that, if they would keep my body warm. But my diet also, God knoweth, how slender it is at many times. And now, in mine age, my stomach may not away, but with a few kind of meats, which if I want, I decay forthwith.” Poor Queen Anne Boleyn, soon after, entered this *aceldama*, at the dreadful Traitor’s-gate, and was beheaded on the green within the Tower. The list of sufferers might be lengthened to great extent. It must suffice to record only a few names in addition.

Lord Guilford and Lady Jane Grey, his youthful and amiable wife, suffered here. Even the haughty Queen Elizabeth was once a prisoner herself in this charnel-house ; and yet, afterwards, how many groaned within its walls by her committal. Queen Mary, suspecting Elizabeth’s participation in Wyatt’s conspiracy, committed her to the Tower. On reaching the Traitor’s-gate, her proud heart dictated a refusal to land ; and, on doing so, she exclaimed—“ Here landeth as true a subject, being a prisoner, as ever landed at these stairs ; and before thee, O God, I speak it, having none other friend than thee.” And, on seating herself by the way, she said—“ Better sit here than in a worse place ; for God knoweth, and not I, whither you will bring me.” The names and histories of Latimer, Cranmer, Raleigh, Strafford, Laud, Sydney, Russel, and a hundred others, are connected with the Tower. Notwithstanding the many interesting and important *mementos* of

the *olden times*, preserved in the Tower; yet, for many years, they were so secluded from public notice, chiefly perhaps from the high price required for admission, that few persons, excepting now and then a party from the country, sought to inspect them. A better state of things however now exists; and, for a comparative trifle, the numerous military and civil curiosities of the place may be seen any day of the week, from ten till four.

The TOWER is situated at almost the eastern extremity of London, and on the banks of the Thames. The whole fortress covers about twelve acres of ground, within a strongly fortified wall, and surrounded by water. William the Norman seems to have fixed upon it, both for a place of residence and a means of defence. Formerly, from the strength of the walls, and the surrounding water, it would be nearly, if not quite, impregnable.

The principal entrance is at the south west corner. Immediately on entering, what used to be called the Lion tower, presents itself on the right hand, but no wild beasts having been kept in the Tower for the last few years, this building has been appropriated to other uses. Proceeding easterly, we come to a strong tower, placed for the defence of the moat; we arrive at the second tower, on crossing the drawbridge, which defends the entrance into the *ballium*, or outer ward; the third, called the Bloody tower, secures the entrance into the inner ward, or central part of the fortress. A little to the right of this is the Traitor's-gate, having a communication with the Thames. Immediately to the left of the Bloody tower is the entrance into the central part of the Tower, in the middle of which stands the White tower, and which originally formed the whole of the Tower itself.

The White tower is a large quadrangular structure, measuring, on its north and south sides, ninety-six feet; and, on its east and west, one hundred and sixteen; and rising to the height of ninety-two feet. Turret towers rise at the four corners, that at the north east having formerly been used by Flamstead as an observatory. On the ground floor is kept the volunteer armoury, where an immense number of small arms is deposited. On the floor above are two other armouries; and on the top is a room, once the council-chamber of our early kings; whilst the chapel, in its height, occupies both these upper stories. The chapel is considered to be a good specimen of Norman architecture. A portion of the Tower records is now deposited in it.

On the north side of the quadrangle stood the arsenal, built by William III., and opened by him with considerable splendour. This building contained, on the ground floor, an extensive collection of pieces of ordnance, of all sizes and periods; and, on the second story, the small arms armoury, consisting of a stand of one hundred and fifty thousand arms. But a disastrous fire, on the night of the 30th of October, 1841, destroyed this large building, and nearly the whole of its contents. The other parts of the Tower happily escaped.

The horse armoury rests against the base of the White tower, and from it is a staircase which leads into what was once the prison of the much injured Raleigh, but which now contains the smaller armoury, known by the name of Queen Elizabeth's armoury. The horse armoury consists of a row of figures mounted on horseback, exhibiting complete suits of armour, from the plain ringed net-work of the times of the Crusaders, through the growth and decline of the more splendid

plate armour, down to the merely helmeted and cuirassed warriors of the reign of James II. This collection is more complete than any other in Christendom, and is as interesting as it is valuable.

Queen Elizabeth's armoury was supposed to consist principally of the spoils of the Spanish armada; but the various instruments of torture here shown, and once imputed to the cruel invention of the Spaniards, are now known to be in most cases English, and formerly used for the torture of Englishmen.

The regalia deposited in a new building, lately erected for that purpose, may be seen to great advantage. These state *baubles*, said to be worth £3,000,000, consist of the new imperial crown, made for her present majesty, the queen's sceptre, of exquisite workmanship, the ampulla, or golden eagle, a vessel of pure gold, containing the anointing oil used at coronations, the anointing spoon, also of gold, the royal spurs, the armillæ, or coronation bracelets, the orb, ornamented with pearls and precious stones, the queen's orb, the queen's ivory sceptre, the golden salt-cellar, St. Edward's staff, and many other articles which need not be particularized.

The chapel of St. Peter's, at the north west corner of the quadrangle, before described, is the only one now used within the precincts of the Tower for divine service. This chapel holds the remains of many illustrious sufferers. Anne Boleyn rests here, with her brother, Lord Rochford, Bishop Fisher, Chancellor More, the Countess of Salisbury, Chancellor Cromwell, Protector Seymour, and his brother Admiral Seymour, Lady Jane Grey, with her husband and uncle, the Duke of Norfolk, the favourite Leicester, the Duke of Monmouth, and the rebel Scotch lords. In front of the chapel

was the spot where the scaffold was erected for many of these executions.

The government of the Tower is vested in the constable, an officer of the highest rank. The Duke of Wellington is the present constable.

THE TRINITY HOUSE & MINT, TOWER HILL.

THE TRINITY HOUSE is a handsome stone fronted building, consisting of a main body and two wings, the latter of which project a little. The basement story is of massy rustic work, the entrance being in the centre, and all the windows arched. On this rises the principal story, of the Ionic order, supporting a plain entablature, on which rests a sloping roof. In the centre of the main body are the arms of the corporation, and on each side a circular medallion, containing the profiles of George III. and his consort. Above the windows in the two wings are square medallions, in which are groups of genii, exhibiting different nautical instruments, with representations of the four principal light-houses on the coast. This building being on elevated ground, and having an extensive area in front, is seen to great advantage from Tower-hill.

This handsome structure was erected for the use of “*the Master, Wardens, and Assistants of the Guild Fraternity, or Brotherhood, of the most glorious and Undivided Trinity, and of Saint Clement*, in the parish of Deptford Strand, in the county of Kent.” The records of this important brotherhood being destroyed by fire, in 1714, its earlier history is but imperfectly known. It is clear, however, that from a very remote date very important duties were entrusted with this



TRINITY HOUSE



THE MINT

corporate body, and extensive privileges and large immunities granted to it.

Henry VII. appears to have bestowed great care upon the improvement of the navy; and with him probably originated the scheme, afterwards farther carried into effect by his son, Henry VIII., of forming efficient navy and admiralty boards of British subjects. A charter of incorporation was given to the Trinity House by Henry VIII., in 1515. This charter empowers the brethren of the guild, from time to time, to elect one master, four wardens, and eight assistants, to govern and oversee the guild, and have the custody of the lands and possessions thereof, and have authority to admit natural born subjects into the fraternity, and to communicate and conclude amongst themselves, and with others, upon the government of the guild, and all articles concerning the science and art of mariners, and make laws for the increase and relief of the shipping, and punish those offending against such laws; to collect penalties, arrest or distrain the persons, or ships, of offenders, according to the laws and customs of England.

Queen Elizabeth, on her accession to the throne, recognized all the rights and immunities of the corporation; and an act was passed in the eighth year of her reign to enable the corporation to preserve ancient sea-marks, to erect beacons, marks, and signs for the sea, and to grant licences to mariners, during the intervals of their engagements, to ply for hire as watermen on the river Thames. This act describes the corporation as a company of the chiefest and most expert masters and governors of ships, incorporate within themselves, charged with the conduction of the queen's majesty's navy royal, and bound to foresee the good increase and maintenance of ships, and of all kind of men traded and brought up by *watercraft*,

most meet for her majesty's marine service. From these particulars, it would appear that the duties and privileges of the brethren of the Trinity House were pretty well defined; yet from the practice of monopolies of different kinds being granted by our sovereigns, sometimes even of the same monopoly to different individuals, or to corporate bodies, the precise duties and immunities of the Trinity House were not accurately defined till an act passed in the 6 and 7 Wm. IV., "In order to the attainment of uniformity of system in the management of lighthouses, and the reduction and equalization of the tolls payable in respect thereof." By this enactment all the lighthouses and lights on the coasts of England were rated in the corporation of the Trinity House, and placing those of Scotland and Ireland, likewise, under the same supervision. All the lighthouses possessed by the crown were, by this act, invested in the corporation for the sum of £300,000. The corporation, moreover, had the right of purchasing all other lighthouses possessed by other proprietors.

The revenue of the corporation is derived principally from tolls paid by ships for the benefit received from the lights, beacons, buoys, and ballast supplied. The corporation has other property in land, and in the stocks. The whole is employed in the necessary expences of the corporation, for constructing and maintaining lighthouses and lights, beacons and buoys, and the buildings and vessels belonging to the corporation; for paying the officers of their establishments, and providing relief for decayed seamen, ballast-men, their widows, &c. Many almshouses are maintained from the same funds.

Of the thirty-one elder brethren, eleven consist of noblemen and heads of the government departments, admirals, &c., who

are styled honorary brethren; twenty are maritime commanders, who receive £300 a year, each. The younger brethren, unlimited in number, are, or have been, commanders of merchant ships. Neither the honorary members or the younger brethren receive any pecuniary advantage. The present master is the Duke of Wellington.

Formerly, the brethren tried sea causes; but the practice at present is for two of the elder brethren to sit, as assistants to the judge, in the court of admiralty, when any question upon navigation is likely to arise. The various duties of the corporation are parcelled out among the wardens and different committees appointed for discharging the same. The committee of examiners is one of paramount importance; since by it all masters of vessels, and pilots, must be examined. The deputy-master and elder brethren are, from time to time, employed on voyages of inspection, and not unfrequently, in their surveys, subjected to considerable personal danger. In this way the amiable Captain Jenkyn Jones, R.N., lately lost his life, at the entrance of the Bristol channel, by the swamping of a boat.

THE MINT, Tower-hill.—On the site of this handsome building once stood East Minster, or the abbey of St. Mary of the Graces, founded by Edward III., in 1349, in consequence of a fright at sea, on his return from France, when he vowed if he got safe on shore he would found a monastery to the honour of *God and the Lady of Grace*. It continued, although in a languishing condition, until the dissolution of religious houses by Henry VIII. It was, for some years, used as a government victualling office; afterwards, as a warehouse for tobacco.

The Mint, as it now appears, was erected from the design

of Sir Robert Smirke, and completed in 1811, at an expence of nearly £250,000. The interior is well adapted for the purposes intended ; the residences for the principal officers of the establishment likewise are commodious. The building is composed of a long stone front, consisting of three stories, surmounted by a handsome balustrade. The wings are decorated with pilasters ; the centre with demi-columns, and a pediment ornamented with the arms of the United Kingdom.

The practice of making the more precious metals, particularly gold and silver, the current medium for mercantile and other transactions, is of early origin amongst civilized nations. The desirableness of having coins of some specific weight and value, and bearing some accredited impress upon them, would also soon become apparent. This led to the practice of coining, which, from reign to reign, appears gradually to have improved until the time of the protectorate, since which period this art has not progressed, excepting in the improved machinery with which it is wrought. Thomas Simon, who was in the service of Cromwell, produced specimens of his art, in the coins of 1658, bearing the effigy of the protector, which no modern artist has excelled.

In the earlier parts of our history, other *mints* existed besides that of the sovereign, and some were continued to a comparatively late period. Wolsey, both as Bishop of Durham and Archbishop of York, exercised this right. Barons, and bishops likewise, antecedently to this, were in the practice of striking money. At a very early period, the *moneyers*, or coiners, seem to have enjoyed exclusive privileges ; but Elizabeth granted a charter, by which the *moneyers* were incorporated by the name of “ the keeper of the changes ; the workmen, coiners ; and other ministers deputed to the

said office; to be from thenceforth one body perpetual, and one commonalty perpetual, in deed and in name, and to have perpetual succession." By this charter they were exempted from serving civil offices, and declared *quit* and exonerate for ever, in the city of London, town of Calais, and all other cities and town, from all assizes, talliages, aids, gifts, &c., to the queen, or her heirs. This charter was more than once confirmed by the same sovereign; and although these privileges have in various instances been entrenched upon, yet, substantially, they continue to the present time.

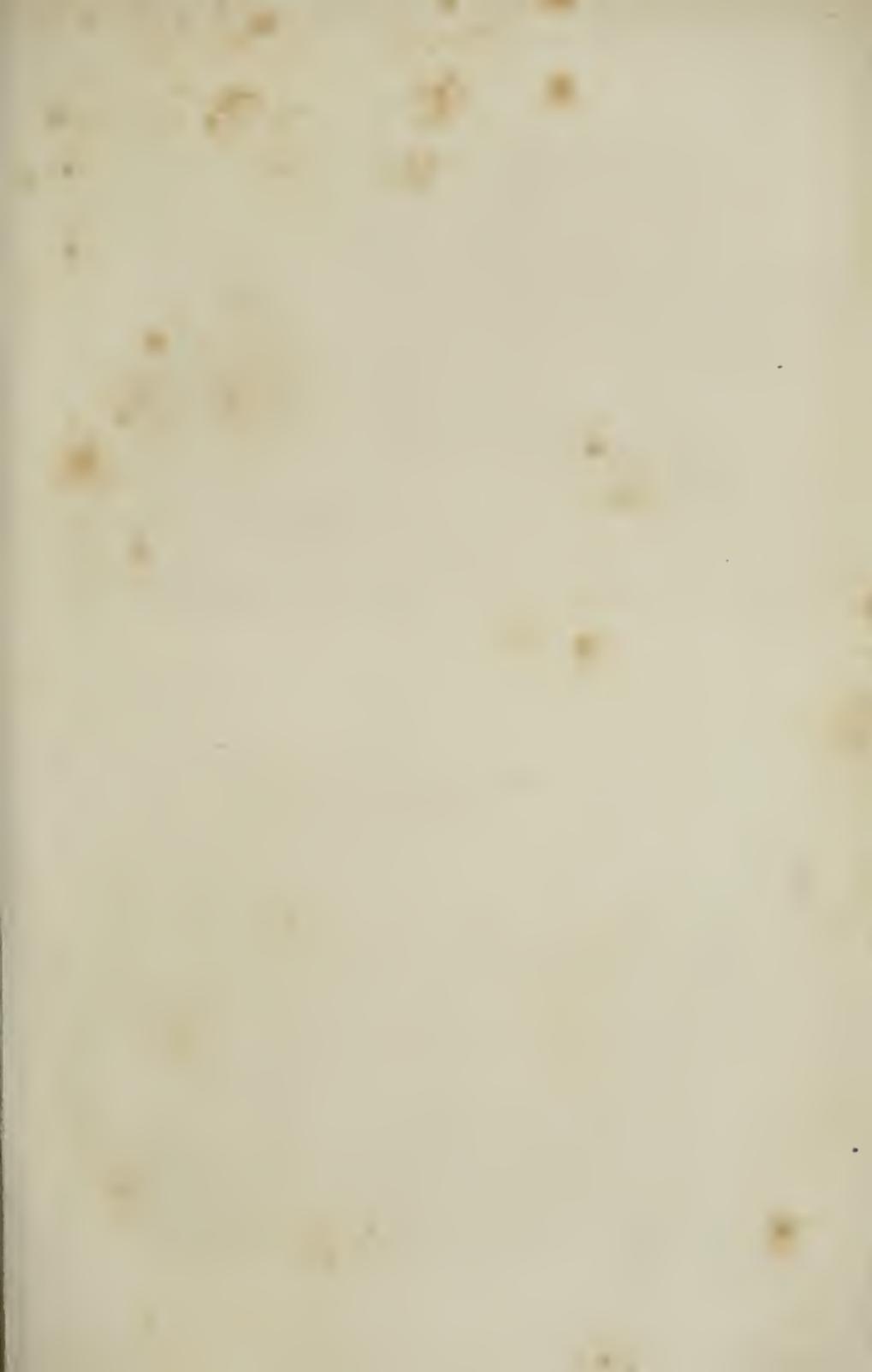
The establishment of the Mint consists of a master and worker, who is one of the queen's ministers; (2nd) a board,—consisting of the deputy-master, comptroller, king's assay master, king's clerk, and superintendent of machinery and dies; (3rd) officers in the service,—the master assayer, probationer assayer, weigher and teller, surveyor of meltings, surveyors of money presses, chief engraver, second engraver, medallist, clerk assistant, and deputy-master. Beside these, there are four clerks in the Mint-office, two porters, and other inferior persons.

The mode of coinage was, at first, rude, unfinished, and slow; but the present machinery, made by Boulton, is most elaborate and complete. To such a surprising degree of perfection has the machinery been brought, that the *moneymasters* of the Mint can, if necessary, receive £50,000 worth of gold one morning, in bullion, and return it the next, in coin. Between the years 1816 and 1836, the money coined here amounted to £250,000 of copper, £12,000,000 of silver; and above £55,000,000 of gold. The charge for coining this amount was nearly £420,000, and the actual cost about £214,000, leaving a profit to the company of *moneymasters* of nearly the same

amount. Any one may send bullion to be coined; but for many years the Bank of England alone has been the medium between the foreign importer and the Mint. The principal sources of supply, for both gold and silver, are the mines of Peru and Mexico; a large quantity of gold is also received from the Ural mountains.

The process of coining will require but few words to explain. The ingots are first melted in pots, when the alloy of copper is added, (one-twelfth part to gold, eighteen pennyweights to a pound, to silver), and the mixed metal cast into bars. The bars, in a heated state, are first passed through the breaking-down rollers, which reduces them to one-third their former thickness. They are next passed through the cold rollers, which bring them nearly to the thickness of the coin required, when the *draw-bench* is used, which secures an extraordinary degree of uniformity in the surface of the metal, leaving it of the exact thickness desired. The laminated bars are then cut into pieces of the proper shape, and separately weighed and sounded, to detect any flaws. The protecting rim is then raised, and the pieces, after blanching and annealing, are ready for stamping. The blanks are now put singly into the press, which, by one stroke, stamps on both sides, and mills the edge. About four or five thousand pieces may thus be struck in an hour. The bullion is now money, and ready for the trial of the *pix*, which is a trial of judgment between the coiners and the owners.

On the appointment of a new master, it is customary to have the trial of the *pix*, in the Court of Exchequer, to test the quality of the money, as between the master of the Mint and the people. This trial takes place before the members of the Privy Council, and a jury of twelve persons from the Gold-





LONDON BRIDGE

smiths' Company, the Lord Chancellor, or the Chancellor of the Exchequer, presiding. Such a trial took place in 1799, when, after a variety of minute experiments, 190 lbs. 9 oz. 9 dwts. 15 grs. of metal, shewed a deficiency of only 1 dwt. 15 grs.

THE CITY BRIDGES.

LONDON BRIDGE. | SOUTHWARK BRIDGE. | BLACKFRIARS BRIDGE.

THE bridges of a great city must always form an interesting portion of its history. The bridge, built originally by Peter of Colechurch, and to which allusion has been made, more than once, in another part of this work, was a history in itself. It had long been the pride and disgrace of London ; but now that it has been removed, and not a wreck been left behind, it has lost its interest from being no longer seen.

The history of the present bridge may be put into a very small compass. After various delays, occasioned chiefly by opposition from the corporation, it was, in 1822, determined, on the recommendation of a select committee of the House of Commons, that a new bridge should be erected ; and, accordingly, preparations were made for carrying this intention into effect. A design for the new bridge, made by the late John Rennie, Esq., was submitted to the city authorities, and approved.

Why the convenient site of the old bridge should have been given up for one every way inconvenient and expensive, it may be difficult to explain. It was, notwithstanding, an error which must for ever continue to be deplored. The present

bridge stands about one hundred and eighty feet higher up the river than its predecessor.

The first pile of the first coffer-dam, being that for the south pier, was driven on Monday, the 15th of March, 1824; and the foundation stone laid by John Garratt, Esq., the Lord Mayor, in the presence of the Duke of York, and many other distinguished personages, on the 15th of June, 1825. The bridge stands considerably higher on each side than the old one, being supported to its level by small dry arches. On each side of the bridge, likewise, a large dry arch has been thrown over the streets running east and west.

This noble bridge is built of granite of the finest description, consisting of five elliptical arches; the centre arch being generally considered one of the finest ever executed. The piers have massive *plinths* and Gothic pointed *cutwaters*. The arches are surmounted with a bold projecting block cornice, which corresponds with the line of road-way, covered with a plain blocking course, by way of parapet, giving the whole a simple grand appearance. The dimensions of the bridge are as follow:—centre arch, span 150 feet, rise 32 feet, piers, 24; arches next the centres, span 140 feet, rise 30 feet, piers 22 feet; abutment arches, span 130 feet, rise 25 feet, abutment 74 feet. The full width, from bank to bank, 690 feet; length of bridge, including abutments, 950 feet; ditto, without abutments, 782 feet; width of the bridge, from outside to outside of the parapets, 55 feet; carriage way, 33 feet 4 inches. The stairs, and the accompanying pedestals, are of granite. There are seventy-seven steps, leading to the river, thirty of which are covered at high water.

On the 1st of August, 1831, the anniversary of the accession of the House of Hanover to the throne of these realms,

the bridge was opened by his late majesty, William IV., who was pleased to direct that the procession should be by water. Preparations were hereupon made upon the most extensive and magnificent scale, by the city, for the reception of the royal visitors; the arrangements on the river being entrusted to Sir Byam Martin, and the bridge and its approaches to the care of the bridge committee. An extensive triple awning was erected along the London end of the bridge, which terminated in a magnificent pavilion for the reception of his majesty, and various apartments for the use of the queen and her attendants. The pavilion and awning were lined throughout with the colours of all nations, and upwards of one hundred and fifty flags and banners floated from the top of the bridge. In the royal tent, a table was laid for their majesties, and the members of the royal family; and, under the canopy, two long tables were placed, capable of accommodating one thousand five hundred persons, for the use of the aldermen and officers of the corporation, the common councilmen, and their ladies.

To facilitate their majesties' passage down the river, and to prevent confusion, two parallel lines of vessels were formed into a passage of about one hundred and fifty feet wide, consisting of a double, and, in many cases, a triple line of barges, steamers, yachts, and craft of every description, which extended from the upper water-gate of Somerset House, next Waterloo bridge, about half-way between Southwark-bridge and the new bridge, when the line became more open, and gradually spread to the stairs of the new bridge on each side, so as to afford ample space for the boats in the procession to land their inmates and retire. The termination of the lines, at these points, was formed by the eight city barges, with the navigation barge and shallops. These were newly gilt, decorated

with the gayest flags, and filled with company. Each barge had its appointed station; those of the lord mayor and stationers' company being rather in advance of the bridge, and all provided with bands of music.

Several gun-brigs were brought up the river, from which, and from the wharfs adjacent, *salutes* were fired throughout the day; flags and colours of all descriptions were brought into requisition, and even the vessels below bridge all appeared in their holiday decorations.

The balustrades of Waterloo and the other bridges were crowded with well dressed company. The windows, and the tops of the buildings, in every place which could command a view of the royal procession, were also thronged with spectators. The day proved very fine; and from the admirable nature of the arrangements accidents were prevented. The numerous thousands of persons who had witnessed the ceremony retiring home, at the close of the day, pleased and satisfied.

SOUTHWARK BRIDGE.—This stupendous work of human art crosses the river between London-bridge and Blackfriars. The spot seems to have been well selected; and considerable alterations have taken place in consequence of its erection, principally on the Surrey side. Southwark bridge was erected in compliance with an Act of Parliament which passed in 1811, obtained by a company of proprietors, and at the cost of £800,000: great opposition being made to it by Sir William Curtis and Sir Charles Price, both of civic fame.

The first stone of the south pier of this bridge was laid by Lord Keith, on the 25th of May, 1815, who, with the gentlemen of the committee of management, partook of a cold collation on a temporary bridge erected on the works. This

important undertaking was finished in something less than five years; and opened at midnight, in April 1819. It is doubtless the finest iron bridge in existence. The length is seven hundred feet, and the width forty-two feet. The arches are of gigantic dimensions, the centre arch having a span of two hundred and forty feet, and each of the two side ones two hundred and ten feet. The whole of Southwark-bridge, the piers and abutments excepted, is of *cast-iron*. It may perhaps strike the eye as being too ponderous; and such in truth it really is, several pieces of casting weighing ten tons. The height of the centre arch above low water is fifty-five feet; and the entire weight of iron in the bridge is about five thousand seven hundred and eighty tons. The accuracy of the work, generally, will be thought surprising, when we know that on removing the timber framework the centre arch sunk only $1\frac{7}{8}$ of an inch. The period, probably, is not far distant when the toll for foot-passengers, horses, and carriages, will be removed, and the full benefit to be received from this noble piece of art become more apparent.

BLACKFRIARS BRIDGE.—The building of great public works is calculated to arouse latent talent, and bring artists of a superior order into notice, who otherwise might have remained in oblivion. Soon after the completion of Westminster-bridge, the corporation of London determined to build a bridge from the eastern end of Fleet-street to the opposite shore. Accordingly, by public advertisement, plans were solicited to be sent in; and we may be sure that there was ultimately no want of choice. Mr. Mylne, a young Scotchman, who had just returned from pursuing his studies at Rome, sent in a plan, which, after considerable opposition; and a careful examination of it by eight competent gentlemen, was approved, and Mr. Mylne was

accordingly chosen, in 1760, as the architect and surveyor. Mr. Myle proposed that the bridge should consist of nine elliptical arches, the centre a hundred feet wide, and the others, on each side, decreasing toward the extremities of the structure, till the breadth of the last should be seventy feet. The entire length to be nine hundred and ninety-five feet, the width forty-two.

The first pile was driven, in the middle of the Thames, on the 7th of May, 1760; but, in a few days, a west-country barge drove against it and broke it. The piers were to be built with *caissons*, piled; and the first caisson was launched on the 19th of May, and, after a short delay, duly descended into its place. The caissons, judging from their present distorted positions, must have been laid somewhat carelessly. Sir Thomas Chitty, the lord-mayor, laid the first stone on the 31st of October, attended by a brilliant assemblage of persons.

This important undertaking went on successfully, so that the centre arch was opened on the 1st of October, 1764. A temporary footway having been made across the arches, foot passengers were allowed to pass in 1766; and, in November, 1769, the bridge was completely finished. The approaches and other necessary improvement proceeded more slowly. The funds for this national undertaking were raised by loan, on the security of the City, and by tolls on the bridge. Government however, very properly, in the course of a few years, purchased the tolls, and the bridge became free. The entire cost of this useful structure was £152,840 3s. 10d. No artist in modern times at least, was ever worse paid for a public work, than was Mr. Myle. The bridge, of course, brought him into considerable repute, and hereby perhaps, he was ultimately remunerated.

Besides the error committed in the placing of the *caissons*, it was soon discovered that the *materiel* employed, viz., Portland-stone, was but ill suited for a work designed to last for ages, from its peculiar unfitness in resisting the action of water. In 1813, Blackfriars Bridge was surveyed, when it appeared that almost every part of the work required reparation. An Act of Parliament was obtained, and the necessary repairs gone into, which were not completed until November, 1840. The substantial repairs were judiciously executed; but, by raising the ends of the bridge, so as to lessen the ascent to, and the descent from the bridge, (perhaps necessary) and substituting a heavy parapet for the picturesque grace and lightness of an open balustrade, detract considerably from the beauty of the bridge when viewed from the river or the neighbouring banks.

THE BRITISH MUSEUM.

The Spectator somewhere speaks of an individual who was accustomed to thank God for making him a *Frenchman*. Without any desire to descry such a sentiment, we, on our part, are often disposed to render thanks to the great disposer of all events for making us *Englishmen*. And this feeling never becomes stronger than when reviewing some of those more recent alterations connected with our *mighty metropolis*. We remember the time when the BRITISH MUSEUM, of which we now propose to give a short notice, was regarded in no other light than a great *curiosity shop*, which might indeed be seen but not until after giving a long notice of such an inten-

tion ; and then the visitors were conducted from room to room accompanied by a travelling guide as if to be the general expositor of a menagerie. The first time, for example, that we ever visited this national dépôt of learning, we did so with an order which had six weeks to run. Access to the library was likewise nearly as difficult; so that the very purposes of a national institution became neutralized by the extraordinary manner in which it was conducted.

Our fathers have been borne away by the stream of time, and their successors have by a very tedious process removed, first one impediment then another, to the free inspection of the Museum generally ; and every facility is now afforded to the student desirous of consulting this extensive and invaluable stock of books, whether printed or in manuscript ; for these facilities every Englishman ought to rejoice, not merely for the personal gratification which he or even his countrymen, may derive from such an establishment ; but also, for the advantages which foreigners visiting England, may possess of searching the hidden treasure of this inexhaustible *mine*. We repeat that there is a luxury in the recollection that we have *something*, amidst the everlasting *din* of trade and commerce, of which, as Englishmen we may boast, and to which we may direct a learned and enquiring brother, though he should have come from the very ends of the earth. In literature there must always be a general rivalry, but it is only one of brethren since he that happily arrives at any undiscovered goal, obtains a conquest not merely for himself, but for his compeers also. And since such facilities of access to this National Repository have been afforded, it is delightful to see what a moral renovation is being accomplished amongst the working classes of our community. Let our intelligent readers only walk through

the rooms of the BRITISH MUSEUM during the holidays of Easter and Witsuntide to be convinced of this fact. Here husbands will be found pointing out to their wives the memorials of nature, of art worthy of their observation; fathers giving information to their children on subjects more than they themselves know; and young men talking over natural science with their *bonnes amies*, commonly called *sweet hearts*; All being decently clothed, and well conducted. If our national establishments do nothing more than this, the advantages thus obtained are of immense value.

Nearly a century has elapsed since the BRITISH MUSEUM first originated. Its rise is due to the public spirit of Sir Hans Sloane, who during a long practice as a physician in London, had accumulated a number of valuable printed books and manuscripts, together with a large number of subjects of Natural History, and Works of Art, than had ever before formed one collection in this country. The cost to the Doctor is said considerably to have exceeded £50,000. He directed by his will, that these, after his decease, should be offered to the British Parliament. This offer being wisely accepted, Sir Hans' representatives received from Government the sum of £20,000 under the original act of incorporation. To this collection was added the valuable library of Manuscripts collected by Sir Robert Cotton, a small library formed by Major Arthur Edwards, together with the numerous and valuable manuscripts formerly the property of Edward Harley, Earl of Oxford.

A *nucleus* being thus formed for a National Library and Museum, the trustees under an act of parliament, in the spring of 1754, purchased a spacious mansion in Great Russel Street Bloomsbury, built about the year 1680, for Ralph, first Duke

of Montagu. This was a beautiful and spacious building well adapted for the purposes for which it was designed, and then known as Montagu House. The whole of this structure has gradually been removed, the last vestige of it disappearing in 1845. The entire new buildings are not yet completed ; but yet they are in a state of sufficient forwardness for affording ample provision for the large collections of books, and other important subjects connected with either nature or art, which have since accumulated.

The articles now contained in the British Museum had for many years increased very slowly, but in 1801, on the arrival of the Egyptian Antiquities from Alexandria, Montagu House was found to be wholly incompetent for the reception of these most important acquisitions. The talented, but ambitious and ill-fated, Napoleon Bonaparte in the year 1798, was sent by the French directory to Egypt, for the nominal purpose of subduing that country, but having, no doubt some more important ulterior object. The British thought it necessary to send the lion-hearted Nelson after him, with an English fleet, and a number of troops under General Abercrombie. Nelson first captured or destroyed the French squadron in Aboukir Bay ; and ultimately the French army capitulated to the British and a number of statues and monuments which had been collected by the French *savans*, or learned men, who had accompanied Napoleon fell into our possession. On the arrival of these important acquisitions in England, they were presented to the British Museum, or rather to the British Nation, by order of His Majesty George III.. Most of these monuments being too massy for the floors of any private building, the expediency of making an additional building for their accommodation became apparent. This was rendered still more

indispensable by the purchase of the Townley Marbles in 1805. A gallery competent for the reception of both of these collections was completed two years afterwards.

Thus matters remained until 1823, when George IV. made the British Nation a most princely donation of the library collected by his late father George III., but on the express understanding that the library should be kept distinct and entire. Preparations were therefore now made for the erection of a Museum entirely new. The eastern wing of the new building was forthwith begun, and on ground which then was a portion of the Museum Garden. This gallery was finished in 1828, and a portion of it appropriated to the newly acquired library. Since that, the northern, and a part of the western compartment of a projected square, have been completed. The principal floor of the *northern* portion is devoted to the general library : that of the *western*, both below and above, to ancient Sculpture and Antiquities generally. A part of the *eastern* wing is devoted to the Library of Manuscripts. The upper floors both of the *eastern* and *northern* sides of the square, contain the splendid Collections of Natural History. The principal facade on the southern side, is at present in active progress, and ere long, it is believed, the whole building will be completely finished. It will then present a most noble and commanding appearance from the chief entrance in Great Russel Street.

The more popular parts of this grand depository of learning and art, are open to general inspection three days in every week, the holiday weeks not excepted. During this latter period, ten thousand persons have visited the Museum in the course of a single day. The days open to the public, are Monday, Wednesday, and Friday. No part of the library is

seen by the general visitor ; the mere sight of the backs of books would prove but a very uninteresting subject, and would likewise be a general hindrance to those engaged in looking out books for the use of students in the reading-rooms. The same remark is applicable to that part of the collection which requires individual inspection, such as coins, medals, drawings, prints, *herbanums*, &c. The rooms in which these are deposited, can be viewed only by a very few persons at a time, and by particular permission. Neither are the Reading-rooms open to indiscriminate admission. This would be entirely incompatible with that quiet which must ever prevail where intellectual pursuits are carried on. Every facility, notwithstanding, is given to all classes of persons desirous of consulting the library, whether of printed books or manuscripts. For this purpose, the party must be introduced to the librarian of the Institution by a recommendation of a trustee, or at least of some person known at the Museum, when the applicant usually receives a ticket of admission for six months, renewable at the expiration of that time, unless something in the interim should have arisen which will not permit such a privilege to be continued. Such a step is seldom resorted to, except in extreme cases. That part of the building appropriated to the purpose of reading, consists chiefly of two large rooms, well warmed and ventilated, with the surrounding walls covered by about eight thousand volumes of books, principally books of reference, as dictionaries, encyclopædias, &c., to which the reader has free access, the presses containing the books being always open. There is likewise every convenience for study, such as tables, book-stands, pens, ink, &c. A catalogue of the whole number of printed books is also here deposited, comprised in about eighty volumes folio, partly printed, partly in manuscript. The

assistant librarians are very prompt in supplying the readers with such books as they may require, the titles, &c. of the books, being first looked out in the catalogue, copied upon a small piece of paper with a certain printed form, to which the student is required to affix his name. This paper, or papers, if he has more than one book, or one set of books, is returned to him on his delivering the books which he has had. to one of the librarians before leaving the room. No books being allowed, under certain circumstances, to be taken out of the room. This is a delightful place for study, the utmost order being preserved, and every facility given to individuals in search of information on any particular subject. Modern books are more difficult of access than others, since some time is required before they can obtain a place in the catalogue.

It is difficult to give our readers a condensed view of the contents of the British Museum, as it now exists, (1847). Of the books and manuscripts it may suffice to say, that besides those which originally belonged to Sloane, Cotton, Edwards, and Harly, the library now contains the printed books and manuscripts collected by the sovereigns of England from the time of Henry VII., the Hargrave collection of law books, the Lansdowne manuscripts, Halhed's Oriental manuscripts, Burney's library of books and manuscripts, the Maddox collection of manuscripts, the library of Dr. Birch, Tyrwhitt's select collection of the classics, Sir W. Musgrave's collection of books and manuscripts, Rev. Mr. Cracherade's munificent donation of books and prints, Sir Joseph Bankes's library, principally on natural history, King George the Second's present of a valuable collection of pamphlets, from the beginning of the civil war, in the reign of Charles I., to the Restoration, the noble grant by George IV. of the well selected library of his

royal father, George III., comprising sixty-five thousand volumes, and Sir R. C. Hoare's present of a large number of books, chiefly Italian.

The visitor to this grand dépôt of science having passed the entrance, in Great Russel-street, is at present (1847) conducted by a temporary staircase to a landing, whence he can descend to the Gallery of Antiquities, presently to be more particularly mentioned, or ascend to the ETHNOGRAPHICAL ROOM, which contains various *miscellaneous articles*, chiefly of human art and superstition, in a state nearer to, or farther from, savageness. Such as various figures, idols, arms, &c., from China and Japan; baskets, and specimens of native cloth from Africa; Esquimaux dresses, &c., brought to England by Captain Sir Edward Parry in 1822, and various curiosities collected during Captain Beechay's voyage of discovery, in 1825-28; different articles of dress and war, from the west coast of North America, and the South Seas, by Captain Cook and others; numerous Mexican curiosities purchased at the sale of Mr. Bullock's museum; Arctic antiquities from the island of Sacrificios; implements and utensils from English and French Guiana; ornaments, and other manufactures of the ancient Peruvians; specimens of matting, cloth, mats, &c., from the Marquesas, Tahiti, New Zealand, Navigators' Islands, &c. Many of these specimens were, half a century ago, surveyed with more intense interest than at present, from their great novelty; now so many ship-loads of such articles have been brought to England, and described by so many persons visiting the southern hemisphere, that the interest taken in such curiosities has greatly declined. These very articles, however, will shortly become more rare than ever, from the simple circumstance that the natives of the islands of the Pacific having improved in knowledge, cease to

manufacture these articles: for example, articles which have a reference to warfare, which were formerly elaborated with great difficulty and perseverance, such as clubs, spears, &c., have been superseded by the more polite and Christian mode of committing murder by the musket, so as to be no longer made.

The collection of animals in the Museum is contained in two *galleries*, and arranged in two series. The student of natural history will find a list of the *genera* in a small work entitled, "A Guide to the Zoological Collection :" list of the specimens of mammalia, with their synomyms; parts 1 and 3 of a list of the birds; parts 1 and 2 of the reptiles; and part 1 of the specimens of lepidopterous insects and myriapades, are already printed, and may be had in the hall of the Museum. The beasts, birds, reptiles, fish, and smaller animals kept in spirits, are exhibited in wall-cases. The hard parts of the radiated, annulose and molluscous animals, as shells, corals, sea-eggs, starfish, crustacea, and insects, are arranged, as also are the skulls of the smaller beasts, and the eggs of birds, in the table cases of the several rooms. All these specimens are arranged according to the most approved modern classification, affording not only subjects of intense interest to the mere transient observer, but most extensive and ample information upon every branch of natural history, which the student can possibly desire. These immensely extended collections are placed in the *mammalia saloon*, and the *eastern and northern zoological galleries*. Suspended on the walls of the eastern zoological gallery, will be found a series of interesting and valuable portraits arranged in order, from the left hand of the *mammalia saloon*. They are *one hundred and sixteen* in number, being divided into five compartments. Their present position possibly

is designed to be only temporary, since many of them, being but of small dimensions, are very imperfectly seen from their great distance from the spectator. A few of the portraits have already, from their diminutive size, been transformed elsewhere.

The rooms on the north side of the north wing are appropriated to the *oryctosnotic*, or *mineralogical collection*, and to that of *pataeontology*, or *organic remains*. These collections are of wonderful extent, and surpassing beauty and interest, exceeding, we presume, for extent and value, any others in Europe. The arrangement of the minerals, with slight deviations, is that of Berzelius, founded upon the electro-chemical theory, and the doctrine of definite proportions. This part of the Museum though not quite complete, offers to the student who has formed for himself the most extensive plan of self-improvement, very ample materials. The sixty cases, with occasional duplicates, contain specimens of every variety of metallic substances, amounting in the whole, to not less than eight hundred and forty distinct families. Six rooms of the *north gallery* are devoted to the collection of *organic remains*, and are of magnificent extent. The fossil vegetables are arranged according to a botanical system, so far as these fossil remains, from their doubtful nature, appear to admit of classification. The wall-cases of rooms III. and IV. contain the osseous remains of the class *reptilæ*; amongst which will be found the order *enalsauria*, or *sea-lizards*, and the *ichthyosauri*, or *fish-lizards*. In the centre of room V. is a complete skeleton of the large extinct elk, the bones of which are so frequently found in the bogs of Ireland. Room VI. is devoted to the osseous remains of the *pachydermata*, and *endentata*. Amongst the former may be mentioned the *American martodon*, and

the *elephas primigenius* or *mammoth* of earlier writers; and of the *megatherium*, brought from the neighbourhood of Buenos Ayres. In the same room is deposited the *fossil human skeleton* brought from Guadalupe, and presented to the Museum by the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty. The student surveys these *leaves* of the book of nature with wonder and surprise, and having anxiously gazed upon these *giant* remains of by-gone times, he retires from them, scarcely believing the *reality* of that of which he is *certain*.

Having conducted the reader through the labyrinth of natural productions, although in a very hurried manner, we return to the works of art, as exhibited in the *Gallery of Antiquities*. The noble collection of *Greek and Roman Sculptures* contained in this gallery, with few exceptions belonged to the late Charles Townley, Esq. They bear the strongest impress upon them of that chaste and vigorous knowledge of sculpture, for which the Greeks and Romans were pre-eminently distinguished. The Greeks, who were the special models of the Romans, had the finest opportunity, from their earliest history, of studying the just proportions of the human figure. Living in a fine climate, with a dress removeable almost at pleasure, contented with a frugal and homely diet, inured from infancy to all kinds of manual labour, their games and sports being for the most part, performed unencumbered with clothing. All these circumstances tended greatly to produce the most graceful forms as to figure in the people themselves, and placed the finest human models, under the constant inspection of the numerous sculptors, who at a very early period adorned the classic country of Greece. The Greeks might have learned the first principles of their art from the more ancient artists amongst the Egyptians; but the sculpture

of Greece attained to a degree of perfection which has since hardly ever been equalled, and never excelled. Let even an inexperienced eye but compare some of the exquisitely finished *busts* of the Greeks, as found in this invaluable collection, with any from the chisel of a modern artist, whether foreign or British, and it will not long remain a matter of doubt to whom the meed of praise most justly belongs. And if from busts and statues, a comparison be instituted between the classical and highly wrought buildings of ancient Greece, and the massy piles of *gingerbread* structures, the productions of our own enlightened times and our artists, are not merely eclipsed by such comparison, but disgraced also. For can it be forgotten, that with the models of the Parthenon, Acropolis, and other buildings of Greece, our Metropolis, in the middle of the nineteenth century, should be disfigured with such erections as the *brick-dusty* Library and Hall of Lincoln's Inn, or the elaborate and ugly *filigree* of the New Houses of Parliament.

In the centre of the IX. room stood *the celebrated Barberini Vase*, which for more than two centuries was a principal ornament of the Barberini Palace. It was brought to England by Sir William Hamilton, but purchased some years ago by the Duchess of Portland. The material of which the vase is made, is glass: the figures on it are in relief, of a beautiful opaque white, the ground being a dark transparent blue. This superb and invaluable specimen of Greek art, was wantonly destroyed by a reckless miscreant, (we hope for humanity's sake) a *maniac*. The treasures in the British Museum have, since that untoward event, been placed under the protection of a more stringent law, calculated to restrain and punish any future marauders.

THE GRAND CENTRAL SALOON, AND ANTE ROOM next claim the attention of the visitor, comprising many exquisite specimens of Greek and Roman Sculptures, Bas-reliefs and Roman Sepulchral Antiquities.

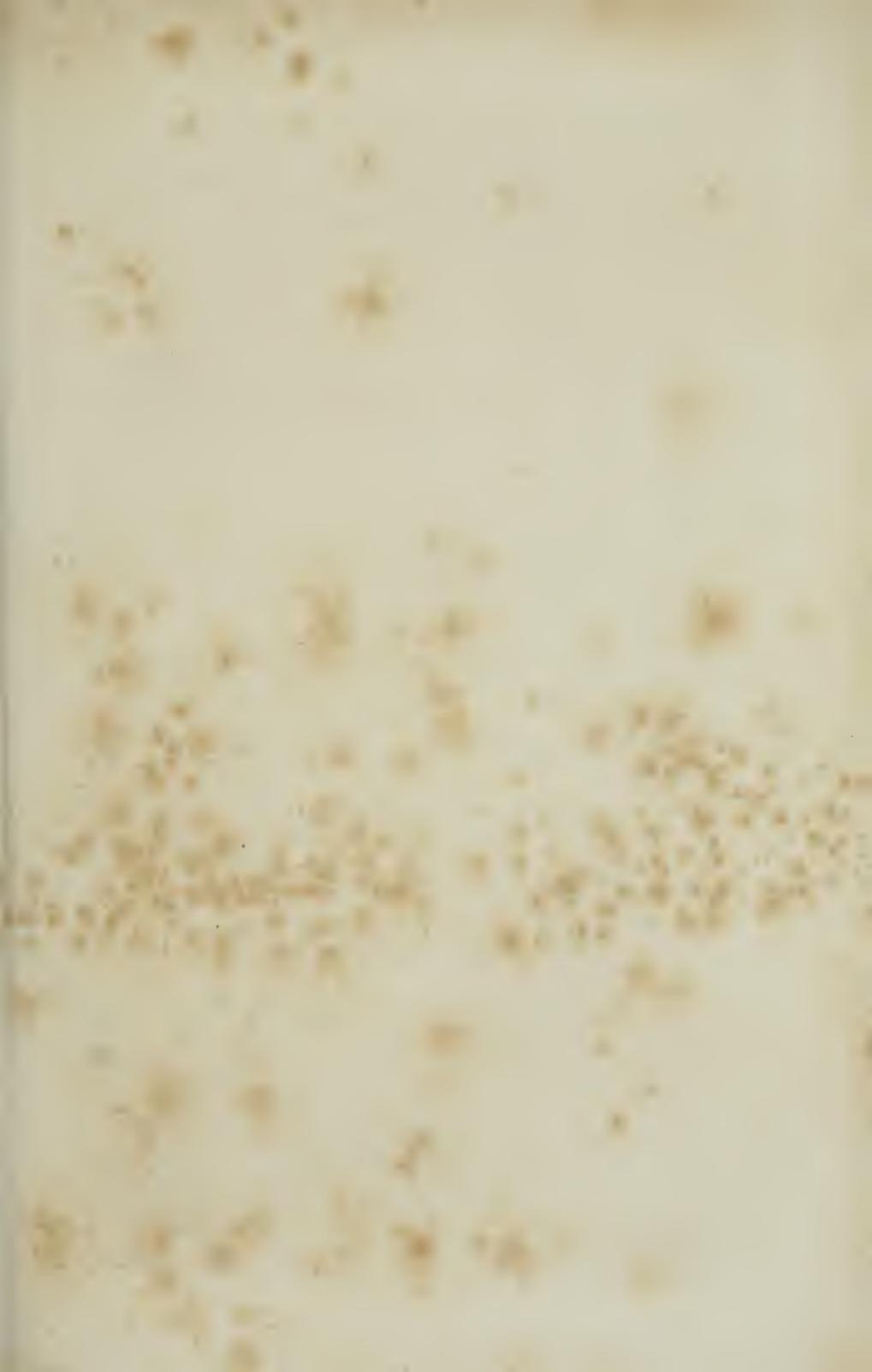
Our readers are now to be introduced into a truly classical, not to say *holy ground*, the PHIGALIAN SALOON. The bas-reliefs in this Saloon claim special notice, not only for their antiquity and exquisite elaboration, but also because the precise time of their execution is known. Pausanias, in his description of the temple of Apollo Epicurius (or the deliverer) built on mount Cotylion, at a little distance from the ancient city of Phigalia in Arcadia, informs us expressly that this temple was built by Ictinus an architect, contemporary with Pericles who contemplated building the Parthenon four hundred and thirty nine years before the Christian era. These bas-reliefs composed the frieze in the interior of the Ceila, and represent the battle of the Centaurs and Lapitha, and the combat between the Greeks and Amazons. They demonstrate, like other Grecian works of art, a perfect knowledge of the human figure in all its diversified positions and contortions. Various fragments from the same temple will also greatly interest the intelligent observer of these wonders of ancient art. The restored figures, &c. of the temple of Jupiter Parhelliūs, in the Island of Egina, committed to the hands of Mr. Thorwalsden by Mr. Cockerell, no less claim the notice of the visitor.

All the articles in the ELGIN SALOON, with a few exceptions, were formerly the property of the Earl of Elgin, and purchased of him. The specimens of ancient art deposited in this room, are of a most magnificent description, being the *metopes*, frieze, and other portions of the Parthenon. The figures

are in *alto relieveo*, and executed with great spirit. We sincerely hope that our young artists will avail themselves of these magnificent remains of the Greeks, that the statues and buildings hereafter to be erected in London, may be imbued with a portion of that lofty spirit which here reigns so triumphantly. The battle of the Centaurs and Lapidæ, even in their present dilapidated state, exhibit that incomparable skill by which they were originally brought into existence.

The objects in the EGYPTIAN SALOON, though of a very different character from the finished sculptures of the Greeks, and of a much earlier period, are notwithstanding of immense importance in the history of art, pouring an astonishing flood of light upon the history of a singularly interesting people. We owe them to the memorable expedition of Napoleon Bonaparte to Egypt, where many of these remains were collected by the French, but came into the possession of the English army at the capitulation of Alexandria, in September 1801, and being brought to England in 1820, under the care of General Turner, were sent, by order of his MAJESTY, GEORGE III., to the British Museum. They form a collection of which an Englishman, under any circumstances, may justly boast; but without wishing to encourage any unworthy feelings towards our neighbours, and allies, the French, we cannot but remember that these very *remains* were purchased by the blood of many of our poor fellows, who perished in that memorable struggle, the result of which has so much changed the general appearance of Europe. They are, however, chiefly valuable, not because the trophies of victory, but from the important illustrations which they furnish of ages long since passed away.

The *Etruscan room* contains a splendid collection of Græco-





LONDON'S WESTMINSTER BANK

Lithbury.

Italian vases, of various epochs and styles. These specimens of art are arranged chronologically, and according to the localities in which they were found.

The only remaining rooms necessary to mention are the medal and print room, neither of which can be seen but by a few persons at a time, and by particular permission. The medals consist of Greek, Roman, Anglo-Saxon, English, Anglo-Gallic, Scotch, and Irish coins, with those of modern foreign nations. The print room contains an extensive and valuable collection of prints and drawings.

A synopsis of the contents of the British Museum is published, and may be had in the entrance hall of the Institution.

THE LONDON AND WESTMINSTER BANK.

AMONG the metropolitan improvements, few better deserve our attention than those in the locality to which we would now direct the attention of our readers. The completion of the north front of the Bank of England, and the erection of a handsome building, denominated the **LONDON AND WESTMINSTER BANK**, at the north-eastern extremity of the same, have given a very improved appearance to the ancient city-street of Lothbury: especially since the architects of this new structure, in conjunction with the commissioners for city improvements, have judiciously placed its principal *façade*, six feet back from the buildings which preceded it. The line of road to the south end of Moorgate-street, that much frequented and important thoroughfare, having, by this means, received an invaluable accession.

The LONDON and WESTMINSTER BANK was opened December 26th, 1838, and has peculiar claims upon our notice, being the first joint stock bank established in London, and one whose successful management has led to the formation of similar institutions. It was built by Mr. S. Grimsdell, under the superintendance of Messrs. Cockerell and Tite.

The whole structure occupies a site of nearly eighty feet in frontage, and ninety in depth. The entrance front possesses, not only from its extent, but from its architectural treatment, a bold and imposing character. It displays, indeed, no columnar decorations, but its composition has the much greater merit of strict appropriateness, simplicity in general forms; such simplicity, we mean, as conduces to unity, together with a perfect expression of purpose; an air of solidity and strength, and a judicious equality of decoration. The façade consists of one general plane or face, broken only by an advancing pier at each end. It has seven apertures in the length, and three tiers of them in the height; the two lower tiers comprehending the openings on the ground and one-pair floors, are included in one architectural story, or order; the upper tier, which consists of the windows of the two-pair floor, being contained in an attic story. The whole of the front is of Portland stone, with the exception of the plinth. The substructure is a stylobate, or continuous pedestal, resting upon a deep rock-faced plinth. From this stylobate rise broad pilasters, or rusticated piers, in courses of alternate widths; the whole including two tiers of openings, and surmounted by a regular entablature, the cornice of which is enriched with modillions. Of the seven compartments into which the front is divided, the central one is somewhat wider than the rest, and displays, on the ground floor, a handsome entrance doorway of large proportions, and

deeply recessed, approached by several steps externally, and having the flight continued within. The remaining intervals afford six large windows, each being so wide as to admit of subdivision by two mullions and a transom of cast iron, of elegant design and novel structure ; the isolated mullion partaking of the character of an antique candelabrum at the base, and finishing with a scroll or console at the top ; very wide and lofty Venetian windows are thus obtained, without affecting the real or apparent solidity of the fabric, and the great and important problem of obtaining the largest possible admission of light, with the smallest obstruction of solids or piers, is most effectually, and, at the same time, architecturally attained. The windows above these, upon the one-pair story, are narrower than the former, and leave, on each side between the rusticated piers, intervals available for decoration : these are sculptured alternately with caducei, the invariable commercial symbol, and with the bundle of sticks, expressive of the *vis unita fortior*, so appropriate to the union, or joint-stock association, of this establishment. Upon the upper or attic story are windows somewhat smaller than the last, decorated with complete dressings and pedimented cornices, and having the intermediate piers rusticated as high as the tops of the windows. The attic is finished by a kind of panelled string-course, studded with lions' heads, of very original design and bold effect, and surmounted by a regular balustrade. In consequence of the advance of the two end piers in the principal order before mentioned, there is gained in front of the attic story, which is not similarly broken, sufficient space for the display of two statues of seated female figures, emblematical of the commercial interests of London and Westminster, and having shields respectively with the arms of those cities.

The entrance vestibule or avenue, has, on each side, a line of four plain Doric columns, with appropriate entablature and decorative mouldings. From this ample vestibule, access is gained on the right to the country bank, the principal staircase, and some official apartments ; and, directly in front, to the principal, or town bank. The latter apartment is not only by far the most considerable in the building, but is unequalled in importance by anything of the kind in London, except in the case of some offices of the Bank of England, and in altitude it exceeds even them. Its general form is a square of about thirty-seven feet, whose height is that of the entire building—namely, fifty-nine feet six inches—and it is extended by lateral additions, east and west, to a portion of this height. Of the remaining apartments, upon which our limits forbid our entering, we have only to remark that they are large, airy, and well laid out for the various business purposes of the establishment.

Our readers will recollect that in the article on the Bank of England, we stated that when the act for renewing the bank charter, passed in 1833, it was declared to be the law that companies or partnerships, consisting of more than six persons might carry on the business of banking in London. Immediately after the passing of this act, a prospectus was issued, proposing to form the London and Westminster Bank. The shares, however, were taken up but tardily, and the bank did not commence business until March 10, 1834, and then only with a paid-up capital of £50,000. Previous to the commencement of business, the directors applied to the committee of private bankers for admission to the clearing house. This was refused. The directors also applied for permission to have a drawing account at the Bank of England. This too, was refused. Moreover, a bill brought into parliament, in 1834, to

authorize the company to sue and be sued in the names of their public officers was lost; although afterwards granted by the 7 and 8 Victoria, c. 113; and the farther privilege by the same act, c. 32, of accepting bills drawn at a less period than six months after date.

Notwithstanding these difficulties, the bank continued to advance, and by the date of the first annual report, March 4, 1835, the paid-up capital, increased by two calls of £5 each upon the shareholders, amounted to £244,945. By the end of December 1835, the number of shares issued had increased to seventeen thousand eight hundred and eighteen. Soon afterwards the directors made a fourth call of £5 per share, payable the following April. This made £20 paid upon each share, and the whole paid-up capital exceeded £400,000. The dividend on the year ending December 1835 was at the rate of £4 per cent. At the commencement of the year 1836, the bank extended its branches. In addition to a branch at Waterloo-place, Pall-Mall, opened on the same day as the head office in Lothbury; the bank opened on the 4th of January, a branch in High Holborn, and another in White-chapel; and on the 29th of February, another was opened in Wellington-street, Southwark. In the following June a branch was opened in Oxford-street. In this year the directors issued nine thousand three hundred and thirty-three shares at a premium of £4 10s. per share, by which the sum of £41,998 10s. was realized as premiums. The total paid-up capital on December 31, 1836, amounted to £597,225, on which a dividend was paid at the rate of £5 per cent.

The company continuing to flourish, the directors held their thirteenth annual meeting on the bank premises, Lothbury, the 3rd of March, 1847, when a highly satisfactory report was

made to the proprietors. Of this we subjoin an extract. "The profits of the past year," says the report, "after defraying the total expense of the Establishment, making allowance for all bad and doubtful debts, and paying the Income Tax, amount to £74,175 15s. 9d. Out of these profits the directors paid last September, a dividend at the rate of £6 per cent. per annum, for the half-year ending the 30th of June, and they now declare a dividend at the same rate, for the half-year ending the 31st of December. They also declare a bonus of 8s. per share, which is equal to £2 per cent. upon the capital. After the payment of these dividends and this bonus, making together £64,000, there will remain out of the profits of the last year, a surplus of £10,175 15s. 9d. to be added to the reserve fund, which will then amount to £98,424 14s. 1d."

The following statement will clearly shew the actual position of the establishment; and, being an official document, no apology need be offered for its publication:—

<i>Dr.</i>	<i>London and Westminster Bank, December 31, 1846.</i>	<i>Cr.</i>
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
To Proprietors for paid up Capital..	800,000 0 0	By Government Se- curities 938,717 10 0
To the Public for Deposits	3,280,864 0 0	By other Securities 2,676,720 1 10
To the Public for Circular Notes...	6,724 11 3	By Cash in hand ... 634,575 11 6
To Rest, or Surplus Fund	88,248 16 4	
To Profit on the past year.....	74,175 15 9	
	£4,250,013 3 4	£4,250,013 3 4

<i>Dr.</i>	<i>Profit and Loss.</i>	<i>Cr.</i>	
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	
Payment of the Dividend on the 10th September, 1846, at the rate of Six per Cent. per annum, for the half-year ending the 30th June, 1846 ...	24,000 0 0	Balance of unappropriated Profits on the 31st Dec. 1845	88,248 16 4
Payment of the Dividend now declared at the rate of Six per Cent. per annum, for the half-year ending 31st Dec. 1846.....	24,000 0 0	Net Profit of the Year 1846, after defraying the total Expense of Management, paying the Income Tax, and making provision for all bad and doubtful debts	74,175 15 9
Payment of the Bonus of Two per Cent. now declared.....	16,000 0 0		
Balance of unappropriated Profits	98,424 12 1		
	<hr/>		<hr/>
	£162,424 12 1		£162,424 12 1
		Balance of unappropriated Profits	£98,424 12 1

The *principles* of the LONDON AND WESTMINSTER BANK, without going into any elaborate details, may be briefly stated. Its first principle, accordingly, is, that the *Bank* should consist of an unlimited number of persons. The present number of partners, whose names are registered at the Stamp Office, and are printed with the annual report of the Directors, being more than a thousand. The advantage obtained by a Joint Stock Proprietary is, that those partners who are also customers to the Bank, participate in the profits made by their own accounts. Secondly, that the Bank should

have a large paid-up capital. And by the report before referred to, it appears that the capital of the Bank is £5,000,000 sterling, in 50,000 shares of £100 each. Of these shares 40,000 have been issued. The sum of £20 has been paid on each share, so that the capital actually paid up at this date is £800,000. The remaining 10,000 shares are in course of issue, and the paid-up capital will, by the 15th of October, 1847, be £1,000,000. This presents the most perfect security to the public, and gives the Bank ample means for affording to its customers every reasonable accommodation.

A farther object, thirdly, is to meet the convenience of smaller as well as larger traders. Hence current accounts are received on the same principles as those observed by the London bankers, every person connected with the establishment signing a declaration of secrecy as to the accounts of individuals. Parties desirous of having current accounts, without being under the necessity of keeping a balance, to be charged a small commission, proportionate to the amount of their transactions. This extends the advantage of a banking account to parties having moderate incomes, or who in the course of their business find ample employment for their capital.

Fourthly, to popularize the system of banking in London by allowing interest upon larger or smaller sums of money lodged on deposit receipts. By this plan, sums from £10 to £1000 are received on deposit, at a rate of interest to be fixed at the time, and they are re-payable upon demand, without notice. For these sums, receipts are granted called deposit receipts. By allowing interest for small sums, the benefit of the deposit system is extended to all classes of the community. Sums of £1000 and upwards, are also received on deposit

receipts, upon such terms as may be agreed upon, with regard to the rate of interest, and the time of re-payment. Trustees and others who have money, which they cannot immediately employ, may thus obtain an interest for it, until an opportunity occurs for its permanent investment. Parties may lodge money upon an interest account who have no current account, and those who have current accounts, may transfer any portion of their balance to an interest account.

Fifthly, the issuing of circular notes for the use of travellers and residents on the continent. These notes are payable at every important place in Europe, enabling a traveller to vary his route without inconvenience. No expence is incurred except the price of the stamp, and when cashed no charge is made for commission. These notes may be obtained at the city office in Lothbury, or at any of the branches. The bank likewise takes the agency of joint stock banks, private bankers, and other parties residing at a distance.

And finally, for the better accommodation of persons residing in different parts of the metropolis, five branch offices have been opened. For Westminster, 1, St. James's Square; Bloomsbury, 213, High Holborn; Southwark, 3, Wellington Street, Borough; Eastern Branch, 87, High Street, Whitechapel; St. Marylebone, 4, Stratford Place, Oxford Street. The whole under the general management of James William Gilbert, City Office, Lothbury.

These principles we remark in conclusion, are at once so just and advantageous, that they cannot fail of commanding themselves to the good sense of every capitalist, whether larger or smaller, commercial or otherwise.

METROPOLITAN GARDENS.

ZOOLOGICAL GARDENS.—*Regent's Park.* | SURREY ZOOLOGICAL GARDENS.
VICTORIA PARK.—*Bonner's Fields.* | TEMPLE GARDENS.

It is indispensably necessary that large towns should be made as airy as possible, and that besides open spaces being left for squares, that large portions of land in the immediate vicinity, should likewise be appropriated for the health and recreation of the inhabitants. Parks and fields, we acknowledge are better suited for such a purpose than inclosed gardens however well laid out; and the time seems to have arrived when this important subject is receiving due consideration from government.

Hyde Park, St. James's Park, Regent's Park, and last but not least, Victoria Park, in the eastern part of the metropolis, promise well; and are duly appreciated by a teeming population. But the gardens which form the centre of the numerous squares especially at the west-end of the town, though inclosed, offer at least so many breathing places for the inmates of the immediate locality, more particularly for the young. Of this description are the Temple Gardens, delightfully situated on the banks of the Thames, and always kept in good order.

Gardens more or less connected with the progress of science are also to be found in the immediate neighbourhood of London. Closed indeed many of them are to the *poor man*; but to others whose pockets happen to be blessed with the *shining shilling*, a ready entrance is obtained. Why such places have not been opened by the Government of the country, for the use of *the many*, it is not, perhaps, easy to determine; yet certain is the fact that it has never been the policy of our goverment *in olden times*, whether Whig or Tory, to offer



NEW LODGE VICTORIA PARK
Birkenhead Fields



TEMPLE BAR

direct encouragement for the establishment of places to which the masses of our population might resort, either for purposes of instruction or amusement. In other countries public gardens for both purposes, have been established, of which the well known *Jardin des Plantes*, at Paris, may be named as a memorable example. In England, the duty of fostering both science and art, has been thrown upon the people themselves.

Yet in reference to practical gardening itself, one exception from this may be mentioned, namely the gardens of Kew, the property of the crown; and which are said to contain the largest collection of exotic plants in the world, especially of those from Australia. Indeed during the long French war, Kew was almost the only place in Europe to which exotic plants were introduced in any considerable quantity. The botanical gardens of Kew were established by the Princess Dowager of Wales, mother to George III.; but for many years, from the illiberal manner in which they were conducted, though supplied with funds from the public purse, remained shut up from public inspection. This wretched system, however, has been abandoned, and the collection of plants and trees, although greatly impaired, has become accessible to all classes, daily from one to six o'clock. The visitors of London should not fail to inspect this interesting and important spot.

Amongst the public gardens of the metropolis, those of the Horticultural Society, at Chiswick, deserve a distinguished place. They were established about twenty-five years ago, by a few public-spirited individuals, for the double purpose of experimental researches in horticultural science, and also as a station whence the most valuable, useful and ornamental plants of all kinds, might be distributed through the country: for these purposes, the society has been pre-eminently useful.

Young men designed for gardeners here likewise receive a practical education to qualify them for their work. The collection of forest and fruit trees is, probably, not to be surpassed in Europe. Neither have the culture of flowers and vegetables been overlooked. It seems hardly credible that the different species of trees and plants in a British collection should be upwards of 25,000. Tickets are required for admission to the Chiswick Gardens, which may be obtained of any member of the Society.

ZOOLOGICAL GARDENS, REGENT'S PARK.—These gardens, though belonging to a private company, and accessible on Sundays only to members; yet from the comparative facility of access to them, may well be denominated *public*. A shilling each person will gain admission. In this delightful spot science and amusement are most happily blended. The number of fellows or members of the Zoological Society amounts to nearly four thousand, and the corresponding members, British and foreign, to about a hundred and fifty. Through their united exertions an immense amount of information relative to the habits, structure, &c. of animals has been obtained. The public likewise has the advantage of retiring to a pretty plot of land, beautifully laid out as a garden, with shrubs and flowers, and kept, at every season of the year, in the most excellent order. Could the poorer classes, on particular days, or parts of the day, be admitted gratuitously, little else would remain to be wished for.

The rural situation of these gardens cannot be surpassed; and the attention given to the animals and birds unremitting. Still there must be something yet to learn, to prevent the great mortality by which the inmates of these gardens are so much diminished. For it is a fact, which has not escaped the notice



FIGURE 100. ORNAMENTAL GARDEN: PLEASURE GARDEN IN THE BAY OF NAPLES.



of the directors and professors, that the amount of sickness and death is much greater in the menagerie of the Regent's Park, than in other localities. The collection in point of extent is most respectable. The number of quadrupeds being more than three hundred, of birds seven hundred, and of reptiles about twenty. The annual number of visitors to this establishment cannot be less, on an average of the last seven years, than three hundred thousand, inclusive of the members and their friends ; nor the annual receipts, exclusive of members' subscriptions, less than £10,000.

The museum, formerly in Leicester Square, has been removed to the Regent's Park, and well deserves the attention of visitors. They will here meet with many of their old friends whom they were accustomed to see in the gardens when alive. The fact of the museum filling so quickly from the living specimens of the society, is a subject of deep interest with every feeling mind.

THE SURREY ZOOLOGICAL GARDENS.—These gardens, although horticulturally considered, very inferior to those of the Regent's Park ; yet, in other respects, will lose nothing by comparison with them. We doubt whether the *carnivora*, or wild beasts, of the Surrey Gardens do not surpass those of any other. Our impression is that they do. Whether this is to be imputed to the particular locality in which they are placed, or to any improved plan in the management of the animals themselves, we pretend not to determine.

The opening of the Surrey Zoological Gardens for the exhibition of *wild beasts* must be regarded as a great improvement upon the system pursued by our predecessors. Future generations will scarcely believe that a pile of buildings, called Exeter 'Change, and occupying one side of a populous street,

West Strand, was, until the year 1830, appropriated to the purposes of a menagerie. Such, however, is the fact. When the improvements in the neighbourhood of the Strand were in progress, Exeter 'Change was pulled down, and the animals removed, for a time, to the King's Mews, Charing Cross, now covered by the National Gallery. Mr. Cross, the enterprising proprietor of Exeter 'Change, removed his collection of animals in 1831, to the Surrey Gardens, which are situated on the southern side of the Thames, and about a mile and a half from Blackfriars Bridge.

The gardens occupy a space of nearly fifteen acres, including a large piece of water formerly supplied only by springs, but now kept constantly full up to the brim, by artificial means. Revelry of a different character from that at present practiced here, was once to be witnessed, these gardens having formerly been part of the manorial estate of Walworth. The festivity of the baronial hall having long since passed away, other scenes of a more rational kind have succeeded; but which, from their own nature, must be no less evanescent.

The principal building in the gardens, is a glazed circular erection, about a thousand feet round, and which is appropriated chiefly to wild beasts. Some very fine specimens of quadrupeds may here be seen, which will amply repay any attention which the visitor may give. The animals in general appear to possess a rude state of health; and from the light construction of the building, may be viewed with great comfort and advantage, at any period of the year. For ourselves, we are free to confess, that the feeding time, to us, is one of peculiar attraction. Hunger thoroughly rouses the energies of the more ferocious quadrupeds, presenting an impressive picture to the eye of the beholder of what these

animals must be when left to range the forest unrestrained. The other parts of the collection are numerous, and well deserving notice from the visitor.

Moreover, the managers of these gardens, willing to cater for the public taste, in a large acceptation of that word, have, beside the menagerie and gardens, provided other entertainments for their visitors: sometimes, floral exhibitions, or balloon ascents, or an eruption of Mount Vesuvius, or, as at present, (1847) a pictorial representation of the memorable siege of Gibraltar; in which the attacked *lion* of Old England triumphed gloriously. The Surrey Zoological Gardens are open daily.

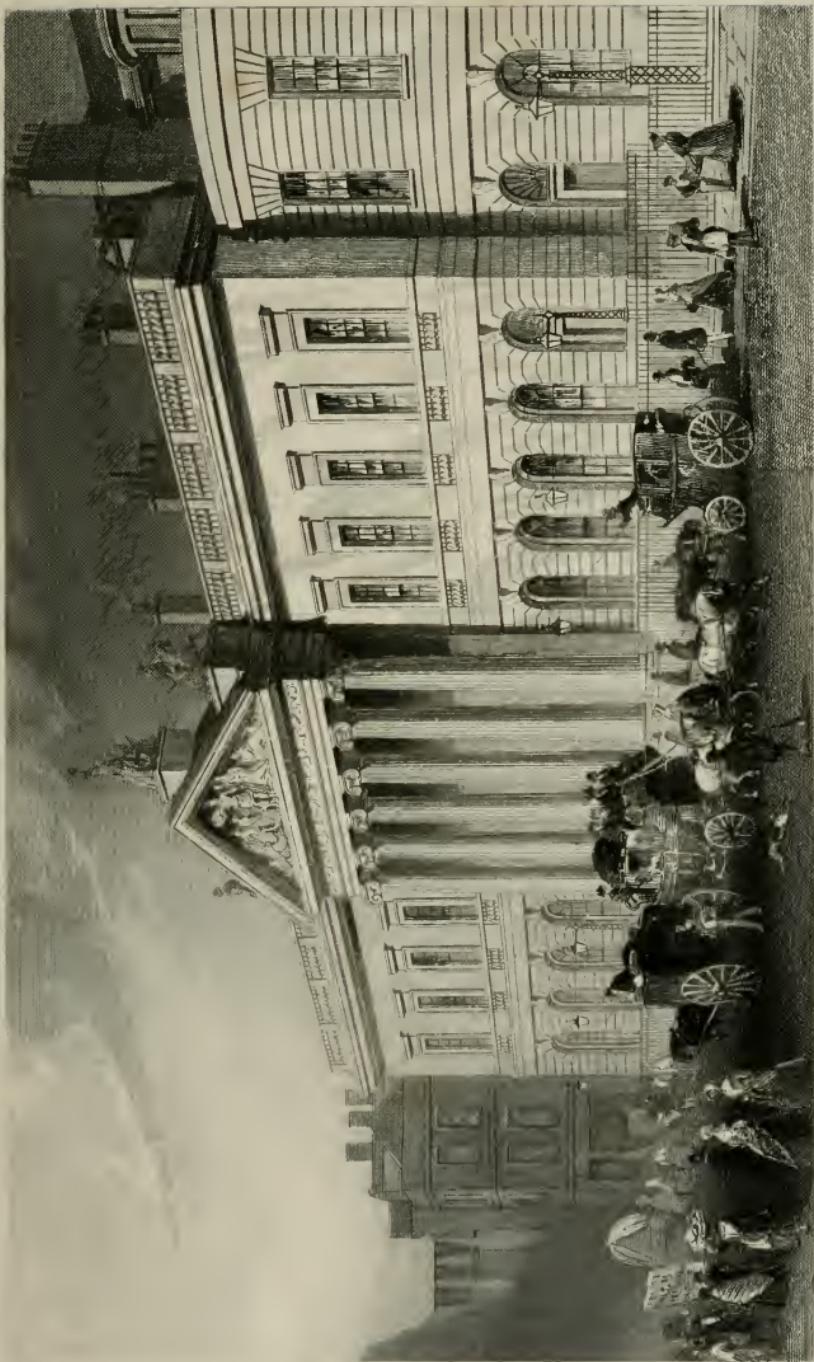
We may just add, in conclusion, that the proprietors of this beautiful spot of public amusement, regardless of expence, are, in addition to the numerous attractions which already exist, preparing another both new and interesting. Most of our readers know that the house in which our immortal countryman, Shakespeare, lived and died, situate in the town of Stratford-upon-Avon, has lately been offered for sale, and that government having declined to interfere in this matter, a few private individuals are anxious that funds should be raised for perpetuating this relic of the *old bard*. For the purpose of bringing this plan fully before the public, drawings of this building are in active preparation, from the prolific and talented pencil of our brother Alfred Crowquill, and which will be exhibited shortly in the gardens. We are quite sure that *something* will be produced worthy of public inspection. We wish the proprietors every possible success; not doubting but that this farther effort of theirs will be duly appreciated by every lover of science and art throughout the United Kingdom.

THE EAST INDIA HOUSE.

ALTHOUGH the East India Company, as traders, have parted with much of their former greatness by the loss of their charter, still as a company so distinguished for political aggrandisement they must continue to be interesting to every Briton.

This noble edifice, known by the name of the **EAST INDIA HOUSE**, is situated in Leadenhall Street, and is one of the greatest ornaments to the easterly district of London. The entrance into it is beneath a portico of six fluted pillars of the Ionic order, supporting a frieze, and two wings surmounted by a balustrade. The tympanum contains several figures designed to represent the protection of George III. over Britannia. On the apex of the pediment stands a fine statue of Britannia; Asia, mounted on a camel, being in the east corner, and Europe upon a horse, in the west.

The interior of this noble structure consists of a grand court room, having a fine design in bas-relief, and various foreign views; a committee room; the old sale room, in which are several marble statues; the committee of correspondence room, being adorned with portraits, and views of Indian architecture; the new sale room, containing several paintings, illustrative of India; the library, comprising a large number of books on the history and jurisprudence of Asia, and an unequalled collection of oriental manuscripts, and Chinese printed books; the museum, consisting of a great diversity of rare and curious articles; and, amongst many others, the trophies and mantle of the fallen Tippoo Saib. The library and museum well deserve the inspection of the curious, and may be viewed by a director's order, or on Saturdays without restriction.



EAST INDIA HOUSE



To give even an epitome of the rise and progress of the East India Company would require an entire volume, forming as it does, an important portion of our national history. Its commercial enterprise is extraordinary; but its political and territorial aggrandisements are without parallel in the annals of the world. The company originated with a few private individuals, in the year 1599, and in London; having a capital of only £30,000, divided into one hundred and one shares. The company, under different charters and alterations, continued to make progress, until in 1708, as arranged with government, the capital stock of the company amounted to £3,200,000. The title which the company assumed was, "*The United Company of Merchants trading to the East Indies.*" The stock of the company, under successive Acts of Parliament, has since increased to £6,000,000, the present capital, and on which dividends are paid.

The home government of the company is vested in the *court of proprietors*, who elect the *directors*, declare the amount of dividend, and make bye-laws, in matters not regulated by Act of Parliament. The votes of the proprietors are given according to their amount of stock, the lowest sum entitling to a vote being £1000 of stock.

The Court of Directors consists of twenty-four proprietors, their qualification for election being the possession of £2000 of stock. The *directors* choosing a chairman, and deputy-chairman, from their own body. They appoint the governor-general of India, and the governors of the several presidencies, subject only to the approval of the crown. The power of recalling any of these functionaries also rests with the *directors*. They, moreover, make all subordinate appointments. The territories of the company in India having greatly

increased, a board of control was established by Parliament, in 1784. The president of this board, nominated by the sovereign, may be described as a secretary-of-state for the affairs of India, governing by means of the court of directors, in all political matters.

By an Act of Parliament passed in the reign of Queen Anne, the company had the exclusive privilege of trading to all places eastward of the Cape of Good Hope to the straits of Magalhaens. This privilege continued unaltered until the year 1814, after which certain modifications in reference to trading to the east took place, until, on the renewal of the company's charter in 1833, the right of trading, either to its own territories, or the dominions of any native power in India or China, was taken from the company, throwing the whole completely open to individual enterprise. Since that period the company has been confined to the political management of its vast Indian domains.

The trade of the East India Company, as compared with the commercial dealings of merchants in modern times, was but insignificant, although it must have been highly advantageous. On an average of forty years, from 1733 to 1772, the total cost of goods received was £989,777, and the amount of sales of goods, £2,171,877, shewing a gross profit of 119½ per cent.; but the expences of carrying on the trade were so great, that the whole of the profits were absorbed, and the company even brought considerably into debt. This, no doubt, arose mainly from the political character of the company, rather than from its necessary commercial expenditure. When therefore the company, during the later years of its existence, came into competition with private merchants in commercial enterprise, the utter impossibility of its doing so became so

apparent that government determined to restrict the company from carrying on any commercial operations whatever.

The territorial accessions of the company began in 1757, under Clive, when twenty-four Pergunnahs were taken from the nabob of Bengal, and have continued, at successive periods, until the present time, when nearly the whole of the peninsula of India has become subordinate to the sovereignty of the East India Company. Anomalous as it may appear that an association of individuals, the subjects of a sovereign state, should wage wars, make conquests, and hold possession of territories in foreign countries, independent of the government to which they owe allegiance, yet such is the fact. The sovereignty of the company is exercised by levying assessments upon the cultivators of the soil, which assessment was permanently fixed, during the governorship of the Marquis Cornwallis, in 1793, by placing the *zamindars* in the situation of proprietors, and engaging not to raise the assessments against them. This arrangement having been used as a means of oppressing the *ryots*, or actual cultivators of the land, the company has, of late, become the purchaser of all estates thus held which have been brought to sale, and making its bargain direct with the *ryots*.

The executive government of the company's territories is by a governor and three councillors in each presidency, the governor of Bengal having a general control, as Governor General of India. The company has its courts; and the sovereign of Great Britain her *supreme* courts. The jurisdiction of the latter extending over Europeans generally throughout India, and affecting the native inhabitants only in, and within, a certain distance around the several presidencies. Every regulation made by the local governments, must, to give it validity, be registered in the supreme court.

The company's territories in India, we remark in conclusion, as now administered, must ever remain of paramount importance to the mother country. Trade being now allowed to take its natural course, skill and enterprise will be certain of meeting with success. India produces every article which can conduce to the happiness of man; and, on the other hand, the luxuries of European production being suited to the tastes of the natives of India, a regular and enlarged trade will be continually maintained.

The revenue of India comprised in the three presidencies, was, in 1833-4, £13,680,165; and its charges £13,630,767. The military force of the settlements in India, in 1830, amounted to two hundred and twenty-four thousand four hundred and forty-four men, and its expence to £9,474,481.

METROPOLITAN CEMETERIES.

KENSAL GREEN CEMETERY. | HIGHGATE CEMETERY.

How touching are the words of Abraham to the sons of Heth, when, on the death of his beloved wife, he stood up and, as a sojourner amongst them, said—" Give me a possession of a burying-place, that I may bury my dead out of my sight. And the field, and the cave that is therein, were made sure unto Abraham for a possession of a burying-place by the sons of Heth."—Gen. xxiii. 4, 20. This is the earliest notice given of the safe and simple method of interment practised in the east—a mode of sepulchre which seems to have been extensively pursued in Palestine, Syria, Egypt, and other neighbouring countries, since many sepulches, excavated from the natural rock, are still

frequently met with by the passing traveller. These *rocky tombs* are generally spacious, being, in fact, family vaults, consisting of niches, six or seven feet deep, cut in the sides of the vault, to receive a single corpse each. Some of the bodies found in such vaults are in stone coffins, but, generally speaking, they are merely wound up in grave-clothes, without any coffin whatever.

The simplicity still employed by the Jews in funerals is worthy of remark, and is thus described by David Levi, in his ceremonies of the Jews:—“ As soon as they (the Jews) have purchased *a place* for a burying-ground, usually at some little distance from town, it is laid out in rows, formed by driving stakes into the ground, and placing boards against them; the breadth of these rows being the full length of an adult: in these rows are the dead interred *next to one another*; and, when one row is full, another is opened next to it, in the same order, till the ground is full. In this manner are all their dead buried, *poor or rich*, there being no distinction.” When the ground is quite filled, another such piece of ground is purchased.

How early, or by whom, the practice of embalming the dead was introduced, we have no means of knowing; but certain it is, that seventeen centuries before the Christian era, the practice had become common. It, doubtless, did not originate with the Jews, but the Egyptians; and of which their sepulchral remains bear ample testimony. Egypt was alike the cradle of the arts and of superstition. Their religion teaching them that the continuance of the soul in the region of blessedness, was contingent upon the preservation of the body. This superstitious notion will easily explain why so much pains was taken for embalming the dead—the time

employed upon it being from forty to seventy days. Admitting the truth of this belief, than which, however, nothing can be more absurd, there was sufficient reason for the ancient system of embalming.

Among the Greeks and Romans, the practice of burning the bodies of the dead became common. Many proofs of this might be adduced from the works of Homer, and other early writers. About the time of Trajan, this mode of disposing of the bodies of the deceased, unless under peculiar circumstances, was altered, and the practice of interring the dead in the ground, substituted in its place.

In connexion with sepulchral rites, we may just remark, much superstition seems to have prevailed amongst all nations, more or less civilized, in reference to the absurd belief of demonology. Undue importance was attached to the rites of burial, an opinion very generally existing that injury was hereby inflicted upon the departed spirit. This led to a dependance upon the power of witchcraft, and various sacrifices, either for the purpose of holding converse with the departed, propitiating their favour, or conferring some benefit upon their deceased friends. But on this subject we must not enlarge.

The Christians were the first who buried the dead, either within the precincts of their churches, or in grounds immediately contiguous to them, afterwards denominated churchyards. Such a practice might at first have been resorted to as a means of protecting the bodies of the deceased from insult and injury. But when Christianity became the established religion of a country, and *spiritual Babylon, sure to be all in the wrong,* introduced a belief in the miracle-causing power of *relics*, intermural burials, from superstitious motives, were perpetuated.

In proportion as the population encreases, so does this practice become more and more absurd and dangerous. To mingle together the *quick* and the *dead* in populous districts has long been pronounced to be most improper; yet, strange to say, that with such a conviction, we have gone on erecting houses for the living, and digging graves for the dead, in adjoining localities. What can an intelligent foreigner, visiting the metropolis, think of the low state of our civilization, when he finds that our churches, church-yards, and cemeteries, continue to have the dead brought to them for interment, many of which places have been full years ago, and the bodies of those who have died before us, prematurely disturbed for the admission of other corpses.

The crowded state of the present insufficient and improper receptacles for the dead force themselves upon our notice from the east to the west of London, and from its northern to its southern extremity. To particularize would be to give a list of almost every church and chapel in existence. Suffice to enumerate the burial grounds of Shoreditch, Bishopsgate, Aldgate, St. Sepulchre, St. Andrew's, Holborn, Bunhill-fields, New Bunhill-fields, St. Mary's, Newington, Lambeth, St. Margaret's, and St. Ann's, Westminster, St. Giles's in the Fields, Spafields Chapel, St. Marylebone, St. Pancras, and in fact, every district and locality of the metropolis which can be named.

Fifty years have rolled away since a funeral has been suffered to take place within the walls of the city of Paris. Why then should it be allowed to continue in London, and other large towns of the united kingdom? It appears to the plain common sense of persons in the country, that when government saw the necessity of introducing the *Health of*

Towns Bill into parliament, a prohibition against intermural interments would have formed an integral part of the same. But when we notice that London is even excluded from the benefit of the bill just mentioned, and that no notice whatever is made in it of the horrid state of our public London cemeteries, we are ready to sicken at legislation itself, and to suppose that very measure of parliament resolves itself into a mere job, or a mere *struggle of party*.

The subject of *burials in towns* has already been brought many times before parliament; yet always without any thing having been done. There may be some mystery hanging over this important subject; but we trust, for the honour of the clergy, that they are not the opponents to an alteration in the present wretched system.

A noble lord, a member of her majesty's government, has, we believe, lately given a pledge that he will do his best to mature and carry a bill on the subject of burials in towns; and it is to be hoped that his measure will not only prevent trading in the burial of the dead, but also leave the friends of the deceased at liberty to use any form, or no form, at the interment of the dead.

Public Cemeteries, to be thoroughly efficient, should be placed on the same footing as that of 'Pere la Chaise,' near Paris, and subjected to no diocesan or clerical domination. No human *consecration* can be so sacred as that pronounced by the Divine Being himself, "when he saw every thing that he had made," and pronounced it "very good." Neither can national cemeteries require to be laid out in the style of a pleasure garden. Let us take for our model the simplicity of a Jewish burial ground, according to the account given of it in the beginning of this article, *where the rich and the poor alike meet*





KENSAL GREEN CEMETRY

together, and where a flat stone alone may record the name, the age, or the character of the departed *one*.

A few words will suffice in explanation of the two cemeteries mentioned at the head of this article. KENSAL GREEN is in the Harrow-road, about a mile and a half from Paddington. It consists of no less than fifty acres of ground, tastefully laid out with gravel-roads and walks of considerable extent : forest trees, evergreens, shrubs, and flowers, sufficiently demonstrate the floricultural taste of the proprietors. A chapel has been erected for the performance of the burial service according to the rites of the Church of England. Under, and adjoining the chapel, is an extensive range of catacombs, which, with another series of the same, along part of the boundary wall, will contain about twelve thousand coffins. The western side of the ground has been *consecrated*; the opposite side being left *unconsecrated*!

The HIGHGATE or NORTH LONDON CEMETERY, comprising twenty acres of land, lies almost on the brow of the hill near the new church, Highgate. It is a spot of surpassing beauty, and, like its compeer, most tastefully arranged with trees and flowers. We do not wish to be cynical ; but really if the teapot and muffin were but introduced, these entrances to *Hades*, might well be taken for two suburban *tea-gardens*. The grounds of both cemeteries are open to the public during the whole day, and are well deserving of a visit.

TEMPLE BAR.

WE have several times in the historical portion of our work adverted to the numerous gates of London, all now happily

removed, excepting that of Temple Bar. Why this massy excrescence should have been left at the extreme western end of London, to perpetuate a nuisance, we know not, unless, indeed, it may have been thought that the sovereigns of England might by chance creep into the city unobserved, unless the creaking of the old crazy gates of Temple Bar should announce their arrival.

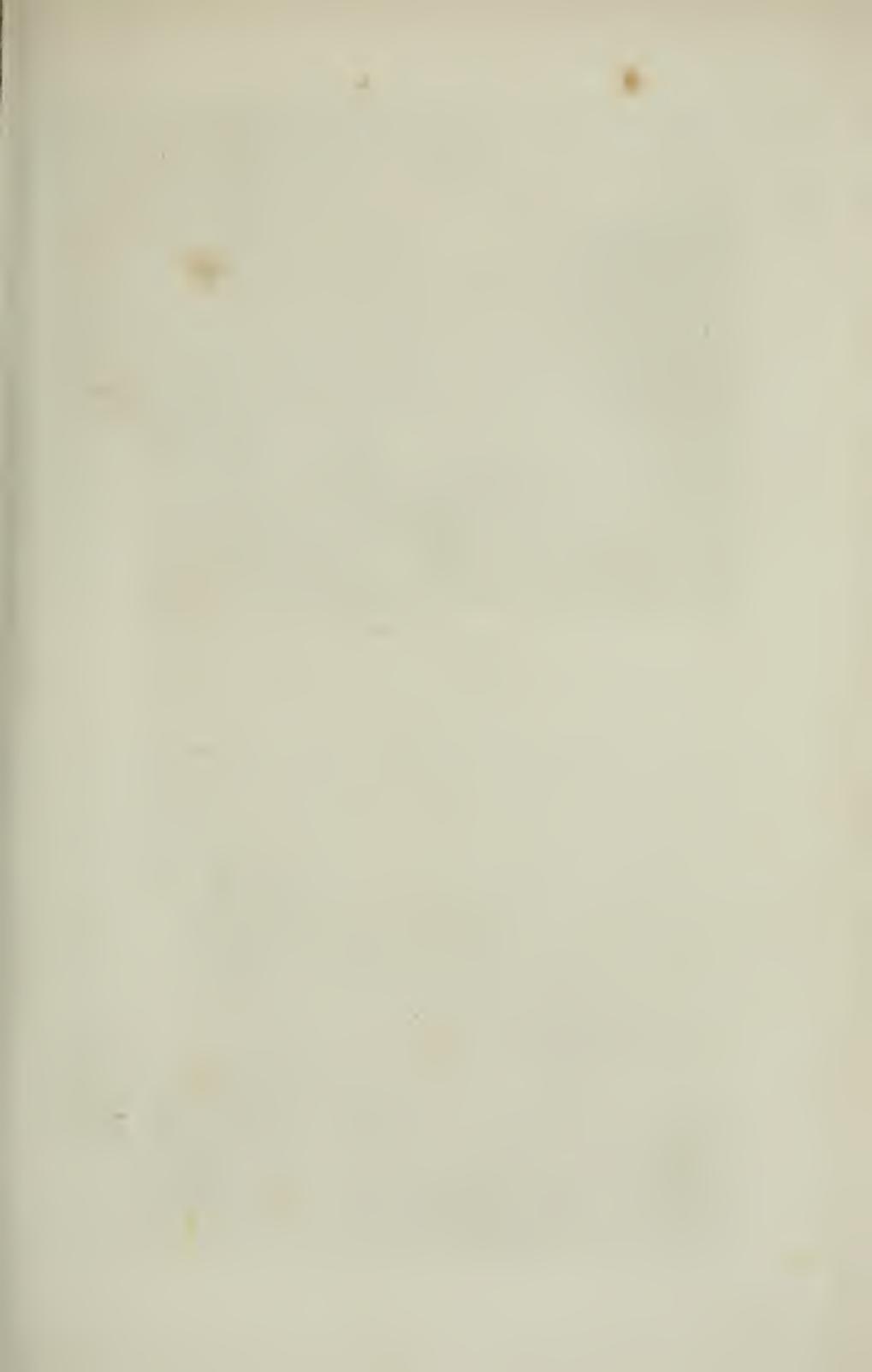
On the eastern side of the gate is an inscription, now nearly obliterated, informing us that it was “erected in the year 1670, Sir Samuel Starling, mayor, continued in the year 1671, Sir Richard Ford, Lord Mayor, and finished in the year 1672, Sir George Waterman, lord mayor.” Our James I. was a pedant, although he had that celebrated scholar, George Buchanan, for his tutor; and in like manner some of the citizens of London still remain *Goths*, notwithstanding the flood of light which has poured out upon them. For, is it credible, that although a vote was passed fifty-seven years ago, during the mayoralty of William Picket, Esq., for the removal of Temple Bar, it should still remain? It is still doubtful whether this vote will ever be carried into effect, unless indeed the blast of heaven should first drive *the Bar* as far as Charing Cross, or its own ponderosity bring it to the ground.

KENSINGTON PALACE AND GARDENS.

BRIDGE OVER THE SERPENTINE.

HOUSE OF THE ROYAL HUMANE SOCIETY.

AMONGST the number of buildings near London, few are better known, or more resorted to than the ROYAL PALACE of KENSINGTON. Not that the palace in itself claims any

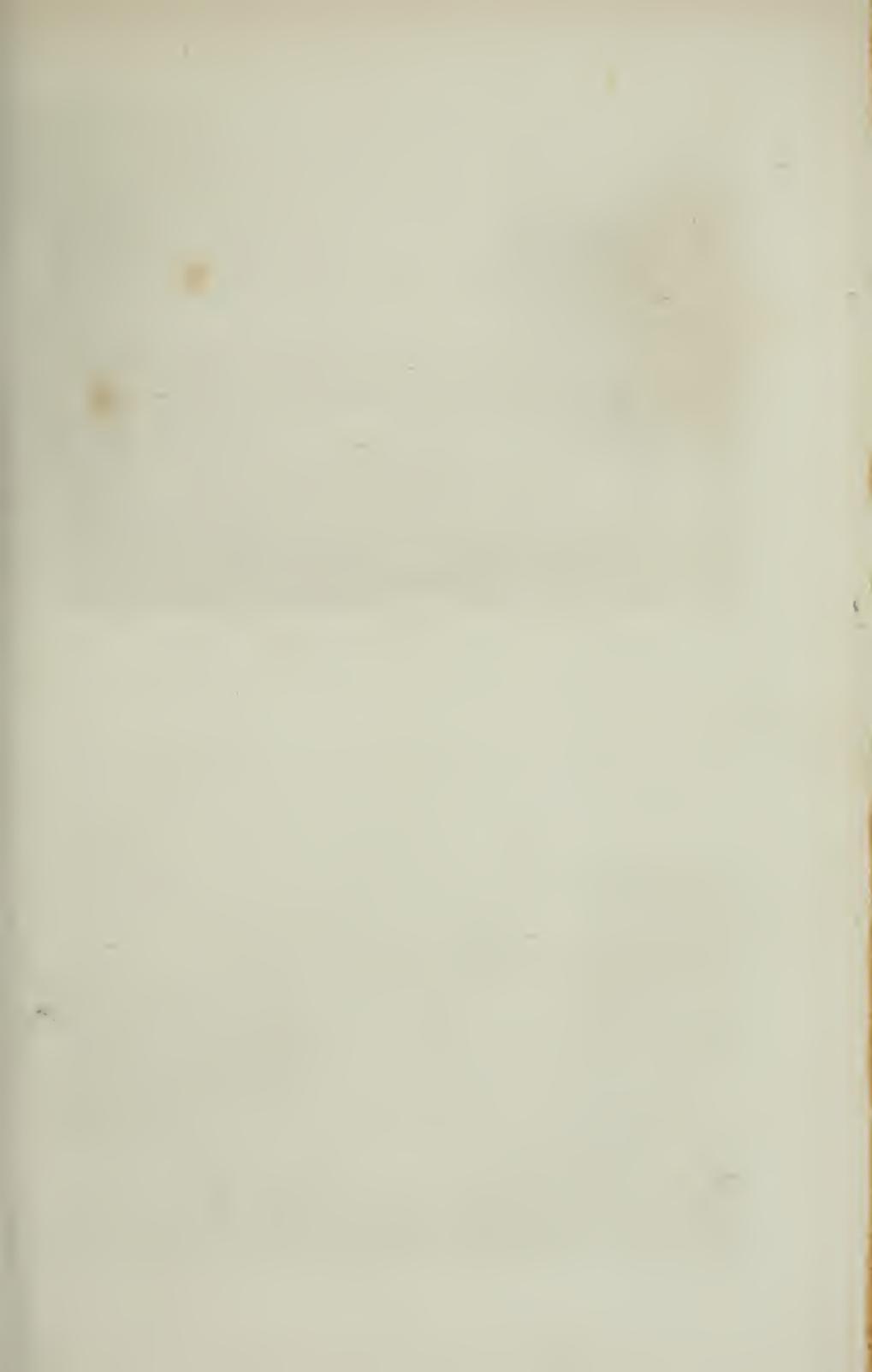




KENSINGTON PALACE



QUEEN'S HALL PALACE GARDENS BAYSWATER





BRIDGE OVER THE SERPENTINE



ROYAL HUMANE SOCIETY SERPENTINE.

particular distinction, being built of brick, and having no pretensions to exterior grandeur. The suites of apartments notwithstanding are noble and extensive, being adorned by many valuable paintings of distinguished artists, English and Flemish. The late Duke of Sussex resided here for many years, and collected a large and valuable library, principally of printed books, which, since his decease, have been dispersed by public sale. This palace formerly belonged to chancellor Finch, afterwards Earl of Nottingham, from whom it was purchased by William III. The gardens are said to have been laid out under the immediate superintendence of Queen Caroline; and for beauty of arrangement are, probably, not surpassed by any in Europe. They form a circuit of about three miles. Within the last few years considerable improvement has been made by underdraining, hereby making the whole dry at every season of the year. The gravel walks, grass plats, and various avenues have been recently completed, with the additional embellishment of fresh plantations. The gardens being open during the whole day, having several entrances, and connected likewise with Hyde Park, form a most agreeable resort for well dressed persons of every grade in society.

Kensington Gardens and Hyde Park are alike supplied with water from the Serpentine, a small stream rising at Bayswater, and falling into the Thames near Ranelagh. It divides also the parish of Chelsea and St. George, Hanover-square. This rivulet furnishing the least supply when it was most wanted, namely, during the summer months, the canal has of late been kept constantly brim full by artificial means from the Thames.

An elegant stone bridge, at the extreme eastern end of Kensington Garden, has been thrown over the stream. The design was made and executed by Messrs. Rennie, and

consists of five water, and two land arches. Its upper surface is level, connecting the northern and southern banks of the canal together by its roadway. The river arches are segments of circles, with archivolts and key stones, surmounted by a block cornice, and a balustrade with equi-distant piers. The land arches are semicircular between the projecting piers, and have also a balustrade over them, the width of the aperture below. The entire design of the bridge is light and elegant, and particularly well adapted for its situation. Its material is a Yorkshire sand-stone, said to be less liable to be acted upon by changes of weather, than even granite itself.

The Serpentine has long been famous as a resort for bathers during the summer months, and for skaters during the frosty months of winter. The thousands who resort hither for the latter purpose on Sundays have occasioned a fearful desecration of a day sacred to religion. Perhaps nothing but a moral influence can effectually suppress this. On the northern bank of the Serpentine, the Royal Humane Society have erected a house for the reception and recovery of persons taken out of the water apparently drowned. Many an individual, who would otherwise have been committed to the grave, has by the instrumentality of this benevolent institution been restored to his family and to society.

THE NATIONAL MERCANTILE LIFE ASSURANCE SOCIETY.

IT is particularly gratifying to us as citizens to record the improvements, however slow, of our native city. Few parts of London required alteration more than the locality at which



THE NATIONAL MERCANTILE ASSURANCE CO. LTD. LIFE OFFICE



we have now arrived. The completion of the Bank and the Royal Exchange, with the removal of the bank buildings, and the openings made at the entrances into Bartholomew-lane, Broad-street, Threadneedle-street, St. Swithin's Lane, and Princes-street, are improvements which cannot but be highly appreciated. Mansion House-street likewise assumes a new appearance, from the alterations lately made at the corner of Charlotte-row, and the Poultry, where a new and elegant building for the use of the NATIONAL MERCANTILE LIFE ASSURANCE SOCIETY has just been completed. Messrs. Field, the architects, have made the most of this contracted but conspicuous spot, the structure being well adapted for the place which it occupies, and which though a mere nook, yet, from its peculiar construction, is remarkably well seen. The building consists of three divisions, a centre, and two wings of very unequal size. The entrance is from the central part, under a portico, supported by tuscan pilasters, making the ingress slightly and convenient, without occupying much room. The central front, and the entire basement of the building being in rustic. The offices in the interior, if not very large, are commodious, light, and well ventilated.

The object of the National Mercantile Life Assurance Society being already so well known, it will suffice to say, that the necessity of having some distinct provision for that large, influential, but not always most provident class of men known by the name of commercial travellers, a society was formed, mainly, but not exclusively, for this purpose in 1837. The title of the NATIONAL ENDOWMENT LIFE ASSURANCE SOCIETY was first assumed, and which, in 1840, was amalgamated with the UNITED MERCANTILE TRAVELLERS' LIFE ASSURANCE SOCIETY, taking from that time its present

title. The Institution thus concentrated, received the support of that respectable body of men before referred to, and its progress, from such a connexion, has not merely been very great, but as compared with kindred societies, unprecedented. For, according to a report issued in 1846, it appears that the National Mercantile Life Assurance Society, at the end of only seven years, has a *greater income* by more than £100 per cent. than the Equitable Assurance had at the end of twelve years, or that of the Scottish Widow's Fund at the end of eleven years.

According to the report of the directors already mentioned, and certified by the auditors, who profess scrupulously to have examined every *item*, it seems that on the 31st of December, 1845,—

	£	s.	d.
The amount of the Society's liabilities of every description was	203,873	5	9
The amount of its assets and annual income	254,421	3	6½
Leaving a balance in favour of the Society of.....	<u>£50,547</u>	<u>17</u>	<u>9½</u>

This state of prosperity authorized the directors, after making an ample reserve to meet every probable claim, to appropriate as a *bonus* to the original shareholders, the sum of 15s. per share. A *bonus*, by way of reduced premium, from 20 to 40 per cent. has been likewise appropriated to policy-holders assured on the scales with profit.

There is another fact mentioned in the report, which must strike every reader as of paramount importance. It has often happened, that families having a claim upon an Assurance Company have been kept in painful suspense by their claim being withheld, or even disputed. To avoid the possibility of such an occurrence, the directors of this society very judiciously consider, that while it becomes a duty to use their

utmost precaution by a minute investigation into every proposal submitted to them ; yet that a policy once effected (cases of palpable fraud only excepted) should be regarded in the light of a *bill* payable at a distant date, and which the company are bound to honour, according to the terms of the original contract. Acting upon this principle, it deserves remark, that no claim has ever been disputed, but duly and fully paid.

It is interesting also to learn that although the amount assured from 1837, when the society commenced, to the end of 1845, was nearly £700,000 ; that the total loss sustained by the company, after deducting from the claims, the premium received upon lapsed and surrendered policies, amounted only to the sum of £4,294 17s. 4d.

We will only add, in conclusion, that the business of this year, (1847,) in premiums received upon new policies, as compared with the corresponding months of 1845, shows an increase, in January, of 50 per cent ; February, of 124 ; March, of 266 ; and April, of 420 per cent. Any farther particulars may be had of the actuary and secretary, Jenkin Jones, Esq., at the Society's offices, Poultry, who, we feel convinced, promptly respond to every application which may be made to him.

METROPOLITAN RAILWAYS.

THE TERMINUS OF THE SOUTH WESTERN RAILWAY.—*Nine Elms.*

THE TERMINUS OF THE SOUTH EASTERN RAILWAY.—*London Bridge.*

IN a small country like England, when the principal roads were by parliamentary interference put into good order, and

the old stage-waggon system, of three or four miles an hour, broken up by the introduction of mail and other coaches of light weight, with appropriate trappings and good horses, performing journeys at the rate of from eight to ten miles an hour, it was thought that the very acm  of perfection as regards travelling was obtained.

And, it must be confessed that such an improved state of things was calculated to excite surprise, when compared with our own early recollections, and still more from the accounts which our fathers during our childhood, recounted in our hearing. The time is still in the remembrance of some old people, when but a single stage, or rather waggon, passed between the City and Paddington in one day. The same was the case with Peckham, and Camberwell. Great difficulty at the same period existed in getting to a distance of eight or ten miles from the metropolis, arising from bad and unsafe roads, together with the unfrequency of public carriages. It is scarcely credible, when we hear that stage-coach passengers, going only to Waltham Abbey, a distance of twelve miles, were accustomed to dine at Tottenham on their way thither; or that it should have required two long days to go to Bristol by the coach, the passengers sleeping one night on the road. Although these statements may be thought scarcely possible, yet at a still earlier period, our roads not being available for wheeled carriages at all, travellers were compelled to transport both themselves and their goods upon horses. Such we know was the actual state of things at no very distant portion of our national history.

Greatly improved as our means of travelling had become, and increasingly multifarious our facilities for locomotion by horses and carriages; yet science was preparing a

combined energy of mechanical and chemical power for superseding the use of carriages upon turnpike roads altogether, and hereby forming a new era in locomotion itself. And this mighty revolution was about to be effected not by means of any unknown principles, but simply by a new adaptation of powers with which we had been previously well acquainted, viz., *the use of steam, applied to carriages running upon a railroad.*

To have the means of travelling at the rate of from twenty to a hundred miles an hour, must awaken surprise even in the mind of a man of science, and astonishment in individuals less acquainted with the progress of the arts. But could our honoured forefathers, who were accustomed to visit London only on some special occasion, then on the backs of horses with pack saddles, and having probably, previously arranged their affairs at home, and made their *wills*, see one of our locomotive steam engines approaching them, whistling, puffing, and blowing, as if vomitting flames, and drawing after it a long train of carriages ; if, we say, their surprise would allow them to form any opinion at all, it would be expressed in words nearly similar to those once uttered on a very different occasion—“ *The gods are come down to us in the likeness of men !*”

Confined as we are within narrow limits, we can only give a very brief sketch of the progress of railway travelling. For a complete history of the steam engine, many modern works may be consulted. Its invention, and subsequent improvements, unlike many other discoveries, may be distinctly traced, proving that it originated from the reflections of an ingenious mind, that its multiform alterations were the result of deep philosophical study, and that it is the most valuable present which the arts of life have ever received from the store-

house of philosophy. The steam of boiling water having great elasticity, is applied to machinery as a motive power, and in the first invented engines, its condensation also. In later engines, particularly those of a locomotive kind, the elasticity of steam only has been employed. The Marquis of Worcester, in 1663, published a small book entitled, *A Century of Inventions*, in which he gives us the first idea of the power of steam, and which was afterwards applied by Captain Savary for raising water from mines. To Newcomen, originally a locksmith, at Dartmouth, Devon, the invention of the steam engine is justly due. He conceived the idea, about the beginning of the last century, of producing a vacuum below the piston rod, after the same had been raised by the force of steam, and which he effected by the injection of cold water to condense the vapour. Such was the origin of that most important and powerful machine called the steam engine, and which was gradually brought to a surprising state of perfection by Watt, Stephenson, and others. The introduction of steam above the piston, and the application of the elastic force of steam under pressure, are due to the indefatigable Watt, of Glasgow, but afterwards of Birmingham. Steam engines, with their subsequent improvements, act either by condensation only, or by pressure and condensation, or by pressure, expansion, and condensation combined; and used with beams and motions, either stationary, without a fly wheel, for pumping up water in mines, &c., or for marine purposes, or with a fly wheel, for working machinery. The progress of these alterations and improvements will bring us to the beginning of the present century.

Some notion of the advantage gained by a steam engine may be formed from the fact that an engine of the ordinary pressure

and construction, as just described, with a cylinder of thirty inches in diameter, will perform the work of forty horses; and, since it may be made to act without intermission, while horses will not work more than eight hours in the day, it will do the work of one hundred and twenty horses; and farther that since the work of a horse is equal to that of five men, it will perform as much as six hundred men could; while its whole expence will only equal about half what the number of horses for which it is substituted would require. At first, steam engines were very limited in their application, but at the period of which we are now speaking, they were used for many purposes where great force was required. Mr. Bolton, of Soho, as one example, applied the steam engine for coining; and by the help of four boys only, the machine was capable of striking thirty thousand pieces of copper money in an hour: the apparatus itself keeping an accurate account of the number struck off.

We must here just notice the application of steam for purposes of navigation. Mr. Miller, of Dalswinton, in connexion with James Taylor, who resided for some time with him as tutor to his younger sons, and William Symington, a friend of Taylor's are believed to be the original projectors of steam navigation. Their first successful experiment was made in October 1788, on Dalswinton lake, when a boat was propelled by a steam engine with a velocity of five miles an hour. Another experiment made during the following year was even more propitious, confirming the practicability of steam navigation. Symington afterwards made a series of experiments on the Forth and Clyde under the patronage of Lord Dundas. Robert Fulton having obtained minute information respecting these experiments, returned to America in 1806, and having built a vessel at New York, she was launched on

the Hudson river about the beginning of 1807. The first trip was eminently successful, every sceptic being converted into a believer before the boat had made the progress of a quarter of a mile. This vessel was named the Claremont, of a hundred and sixty tons burden, and which made her first voyage, without any accident, from New York to Albany, a distance of a hundred and forty-five miles, at the rate of five miles an hour. Henry Bell, of Helensburgh, on the Clyde, having likewise witnessed the experiments of Miller and Symington, built a vessel of about twenty-five tons burden, called the Comet, which, in 1812, began to run regularly between Glasgow and Helensburgh. In 1815, the first steamer appeared on the Thames called the Margery, (although of this there seems to be some doubt,) of seventy tons burden, and which plied between London and Gravesend. Her fares were respectively four shillings and two.

It has been well remarked that Newcomen would acknowledge a marine engine as now manufactured by Maudslay and Field, as a descendant of his atmospheric one; but that in the locomotive engine of Stephenson he would trace no such connexion. The fact being that such an engine is perfectly new, having no other analogy to the ordinary engine excepting that steam is the source of power in both. To render an engine portable it became essential to dispense with all cumbrous apparatus; even the principle of *condensation* itself was denounced. In the locomotive engine, sometimes denominated the high pressure engine, the steam is raised to a pressure sufficient to overcome that of the atmosphere on the opposite side of the piston, the steam also being allowed to act alternately on both sides of the piston, so that the steam having driven the piston up or down is not condensed, but suffered to pass through

an orifice into the open air. Such is the simple principle of the non-condensing engine; and which, without a beam, may be used either stationary, with a fly-wheel for working machinery, or stationary for rotatory engines, or as a locomotive engine without a fly-wheel. Having given this general idea of the steam engine, it would be foreign to our purpose to enter into further detail.

It may at first sight appear extraordinary that, intersected as our country is with roads in all directions, that so vast an outlay should have been made in the construction of railroads. But when the numerous difficulties which steam carriages have to overcome on a common road are considered, the better adaptation of a railway for locomotive purposes will become very apparent. An engine on the common road, must, in the first place, have a provision made for passing over rough, soft, and constantly varying surfaces, and surmounting acclivities of considerable steepness; next, that the machine must be provided with the means of steering with ease and certainty along the sinuosities of a road or street, among other vehicles, and round sharp corners; farther, the weight must be kept within the smallest possible limits, a long train of carriages being inadmissible; and, finally, the necessity of employing machinery which shall occupy but little space, and which also shall not interfere with the accommodation required for passengers and goods. These are *desiderata*, it will be easy to perceive, difficult of accomplishment, combining as they do qualities almost contradictory and irreconcileable.

Notwithstanding these difficulties, experiments have shown the possibility of having steam carriages on a common road. Dr. Robison, while a student in the university of Glasgow, about the year 1759, conceived the idea of

propelling wheel carriages by the agency of steam, and suggested the idea to his friend Watt, who subsequently, in his patent of 1784, describes a plan for a steam carriage; but which was never carried into effect. Mr. Murdoch, a native of Cornwall, was the first in this country who produced a working model of a steam carriage. This happened between the year 1782 and 1792. In 1802, Messrs. Trevithick and Vivian obtained a patent for a steam engine, on the principle of high pressure, which, from its portability, could be applied to land carriages on a common road. Such a vehicle was exhibited in London soon after, and sufficiently demonstrated the practicability of the invention; but owing to the defective state of the roads at that time, the experiments were discontinued, and the machinery adapted to be used upon a railway. The most successful experiments with steam carriages on a common road, were doubtless those of Mr. Hancock, who, in February 1831, commenced running a steam carriage, appropriately denominated the *Infant*, between Stratford and London. This was, it is believed, the first steam carriage that ever plied for hire upon a public road. But notwithstanding so many apparently successful experiments, *common road locomotion* has made such little progress, that every attempt to render steam carriages the means of economical and regular inland communication on ordinary roads, has *totally and absolutely failed*.

From the foregoing statements it will be apparent why resource has been had to railways, notwithstanding the immense outlay required, for the transportation of passengers and goods, to and from distant parts of the country, by the aid of non-condensing locomotive steam carriages.

The use of railways for the easier transport of heavily laden waggons, we have already remarked, is nothing new. Rail-

ways have been employed in the collieries of the north of England, and in the mining districts, for the last two centuries ; but simply forming wheel tracts for carts and waggons. Such railroads were made by pieces of wood, roughly squared, about six feet long, and four to eight inches square, being laid across the intended road, at about two or three feet from each other, and upon these, other pieces, six or seven inches wide, and five deep, were fastened by means of pegs, so as to form two wheel tracks, about four feet apart. It was likewise customary, at any steep ascent, to nail thin plates of malleable iron upon the surface of the wooden rails, to lessen the draught. At other places, which happened to be steep, the carriages were allowed to descend, upon an inclined plane, by their own gravity. The waggons were kept in the proper direction by a *flange*, or projecting rim, on the wheels. Cast iron plates were afterwards employed ; but, from their extreme brittleness, such frequent breakages occurred, that malleable iron rails were again substituted, an improvement which, it is thought, has done more in preparing railroads for becoming the principal highways of the country, than any other.

The invention, in 1820, by Mr. Birkenshaw, of an efficient and cheap method of rolling iron bars suitable for railways, has proved a great *desideratum*, especially since the long wrought rails, formerly confined to the parallel form, can, by a very ingenious adaptation of rolling machinery, be made fish-bellied, when that form is required. It is, however, remarkable that, in the opinion of Sir I. K. Brunel, and others, a smoother and more elastic road, more agreeable to ride upon, cheaper to maintain, and safer for travelling at great velocities, may be obtained by the use of timber, almost according to the original plan, as above described, than by the more

recent and ordinary manner of constructing railroads with stone and iron. The application of iron in such a case being limited to a flat bar or plate, two inches and a half wide, and from half-an-inch to an inch thick, nailed to the beams on the inner edges for the wheels to roll upon. The Great Western, and the London and Croydon Railways are laid in this manner. The Greenwich Railway offers superior comfort from timber bearings being used instead of stone.

In the construction of railways, it has generally been thought that a perfectly straight and level line should be preferred, especially when the extreme *termini* are of equal elevation ; or a uniform slope, when one is higher than the other. But, desirable as this may appear, it rarely happens that either can be attained for any great distance : the inclinations, or *gradients*, are therefore so adjusted as to make the nearest practicable approach to a level. The Great Western Railway, in a length of one hundred and seventeen and a half miles, has no steeper *gradient* than six feet six inches per mile, excepting for about four miles ; whereas the ordinary *gradient* on the London and Birmingham Railway is sixteen feet per mile. There are, undoubtedly, some circumstances under which advantage may be taken of the powers of gravity and momentum. In deed, from many experiments recently made, it would appear that considerable ascents and descents may be allowed in the construction of railroads, with safety and advantage.

Moreover, in a railroad of any length, great variety in the nature of the work required must be found, consequent, principally, upon the inequalities of the ground over, or through, which the road is to pass. Hence the necessity, as the case may be, of excavation, tunneling, and embankment, together with the formation of viaducts, bridges, and other erections.

Tunnels are, at once, most expensive to proprietors, and least agreeable to travellers. In all the more recently designed railways, therefore, they have been most judiciously avoided where it was practicable. Deep cuttings, and excavations of considerable extent, must be of frequent occurrence, often superseding the necessity of a tunnel. An extensive excavation through the Cowran Hills, on the Newcastle and Carlisle *line* of road, is, in some parts, more than one hundred feet deep. At Bilsworth, on the London and Birmingham *line*, the railway is at a depth of about sixty feet, the upper portion of which is rock, the lower consisting of a less solid material. In this case, the rock is supported by an under-setting of masonry, instead of making an excavation of the slope required by the lower strata.

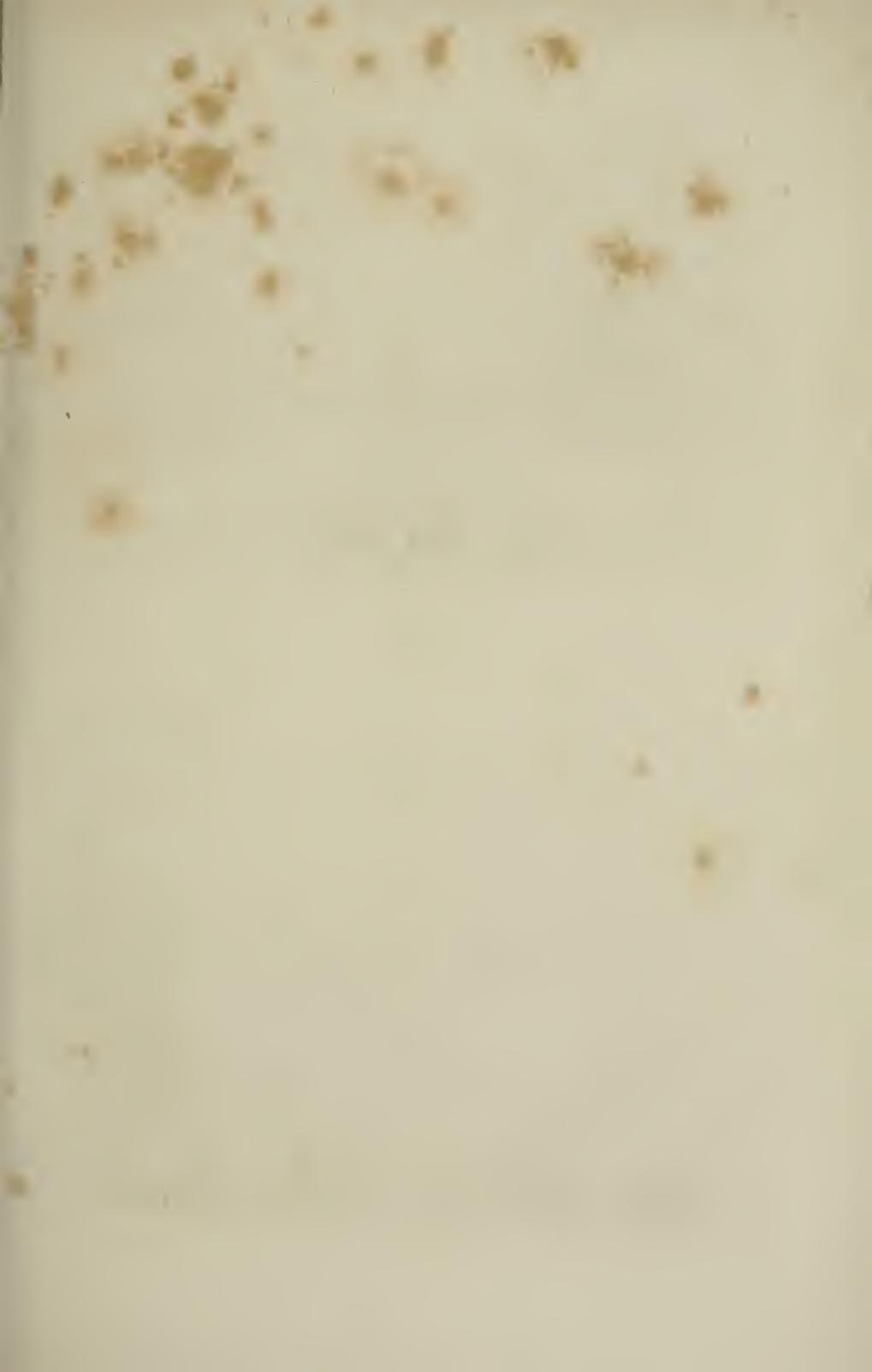
Embankments, or artificial ridges of earth, formed to support a railway when on a higher level than the natural surface of the ground, are often of gigantic dimensions. The quantity of earth removed, in many cases, averaging from one hundred thousand to one hundred and fifty thousand cubic yards per mile. Our readers will form some idea of this fact when they are informed that the earth and stones removed on the London and Birmingham line alone, amounted to sixteen million cubic yards, which would form a belt, three feet wide and one high, long enough to encompass the equatorial circumference of the earth.

The quantity of masonry and brickwork, in a railway of any extent, is always considerable. The number of bridges required, taking the mean of one hundred railways, averages two and a half per mile. To this must be added arching of almost every kind, viaducts, drains, and walls, with station-houses and other buildings.

The expence incurred in making a railway must, therefore, in itself, necessarily be very great. Twenty thousand pounds sterling per mile is not more than the average cost. In many special cases it has far exceeded this estimate. Among the items of expenditure, must not be overlooked that of procuring an Act of Parliament for the same. The formation of railways involving the interests of so many, will, of course, require the aid of legislation; and the British Parliament has done wisely in making numerous and stringent preparatory regulations on this subject. The number of crude and ill-judged speculations of 1835-7, inclusive, seemed to require this. Still legitimate enterprise should not be injuriously shackled, or expences incurred out of all reasonable bounds. A Railway Act embracing, as it does, numerous subjects, must be of some extent; yet, probably, none but a lawyer would imagine that *two hundred folio pages* were necessary for such a purpose. Natives of Great Britain ought *to blush*, while foreigners *stare*, at the announcement, that the expence of the Act of Parliament obtained for the London and Birmingham Railway Company amounted to £72,000; that of the Great Western, to £88,000; and that of the London and Brighton Company, to *a thousand pounds a day, for about fifty days!*

The whole length of the various railways already sanctioned by parliament, exceeds three thousand miles in length, about half that number being already in operation, and with an invested capital of, at least, £60,000,000.

The success attendant upon such speculations must vary; but no doubt can exist that the aggregate amount of travelling by railways has greatly increased, producing receipts truly surprising. The gross receipts of the London and Birmingham Railway, in connexion with branches to Liverpool, Man-





SOUTH WESTERN RAILWAY STATION

1860.



SOUTH EASTERN & SOUTH COAST RAILWAY STATION,
London Bridge.

chester, Preston, and Aylesbury, were, during the year 1840 £1,467,562 : 19s. : 8d.

The numerous railroads which now intersect the country may be regarded as so many radii, meeting in London as their common centre. The Great Western Railway, including the Gloucester, Oxford, and South Devon branches, has its *terminus* at Paddington. At the *terminus* of the London and Birmingham, or North Western Railway, Euston Square, two sections centre, the southern and the northern ; the southern, including the Northampton, Peterborough, Warwick, Leamington, Aylesbury, and Bedford branches ; the northern section, comprising the Chester, Crewe, Macclesfield, Bolton, and Kenyon branches. The South Western, or Southampton Railway, has its *terminus* at Nine Elms, Vauxhall, including the Guildford, Gosport, and Richmond branches. The *termini* of the Croydon, Brighton, and Dover, or the South Eastern Railways, including the Greenwich, Ramsgate, Tunbridge Wells, Maidstone, Margate, Chichester, and Hastings branches, are at Tooley Street, London Bridge. The Dover Railway *terminus*, strictly speaking, is in the Kent Road. The Blackwall Railway *terminus* is in Fenchurch Street, City. The engines employed on this line of road are stationary, the carriages being drawn by means of ropes. The Eastern Counties and Eastern Union Railways, including the Cambridge line, and the Hertford, Peterborough, and Stamford branches, have their *termini* in Shoreditch. Numerous public carriages are constantly in attendance on the arrival of the trains ; and proceed from every part of the metropolis for the purpose of conveying passengers to the various railway *termini*.

Great as the convenience of railway travelling undoubtedly is, there is still great room for further improvement. When, for

example, it is recollect that passengers are not unfrequently as long in getting from the railway station to their respective places of abode, as the time which the whole journey by the railway occupied, it will be confessed that some alteration is necessary. The time, possibly, is not far distant when the *terminus* of each railway will come to some common point, and which should be in the *very centre* of the metropolis itself.

THE LONDON ARCADES.

THE BURLINGTON ARCADE, PICCADILLY.

THE LOWTHER ARCADE, WEST STRAND.

AMONGST the novelties of London may be ranked the Burlington Arcade, Piccadilly, with its twin sister the Lowther Arcade, West Strand. The former of these was built from the design of Samuel Ware, Esq., well known as the author of a scientific work on vaults and bridges. It is a covered avenue lighted, during the day, from openings in the roof, and, at night, by gas, presenting a very brilliant appearance. The arcade is upwards of two hundred yards in length, fitted up on each side in good taste with shops, appropriated chiefly for the sale of books, prints, jewellery, millinery, artificial *bouquets*, and other articles of fashionable demand. Porters walk to and fro for the maintenance of good order. It forms a pleasant promenade, especially in bad weather. An entrance is made into the western bazaar from about the centre of the arcade.

The Lowther Arcade forms an elegant avenue to Adelaide Street, at the back of St. Martin's church. It is not so long as its compeer the *Burlington* but is wider and higher, having

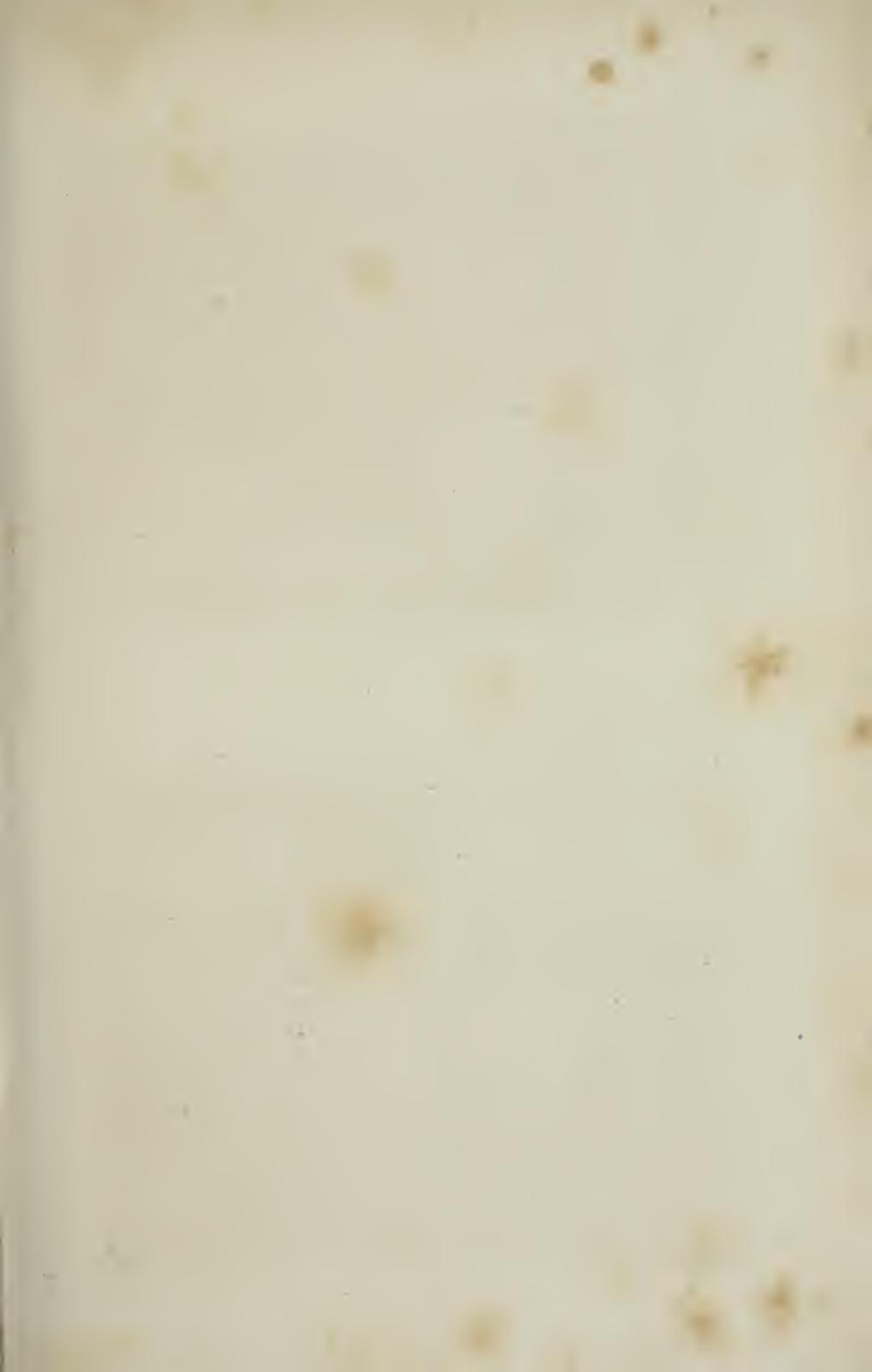


BURLINGTON ARCADE



EGYPTIAN HALL





ST MARY, LIVERPOOL



ST MARY, LIVERPOOL.



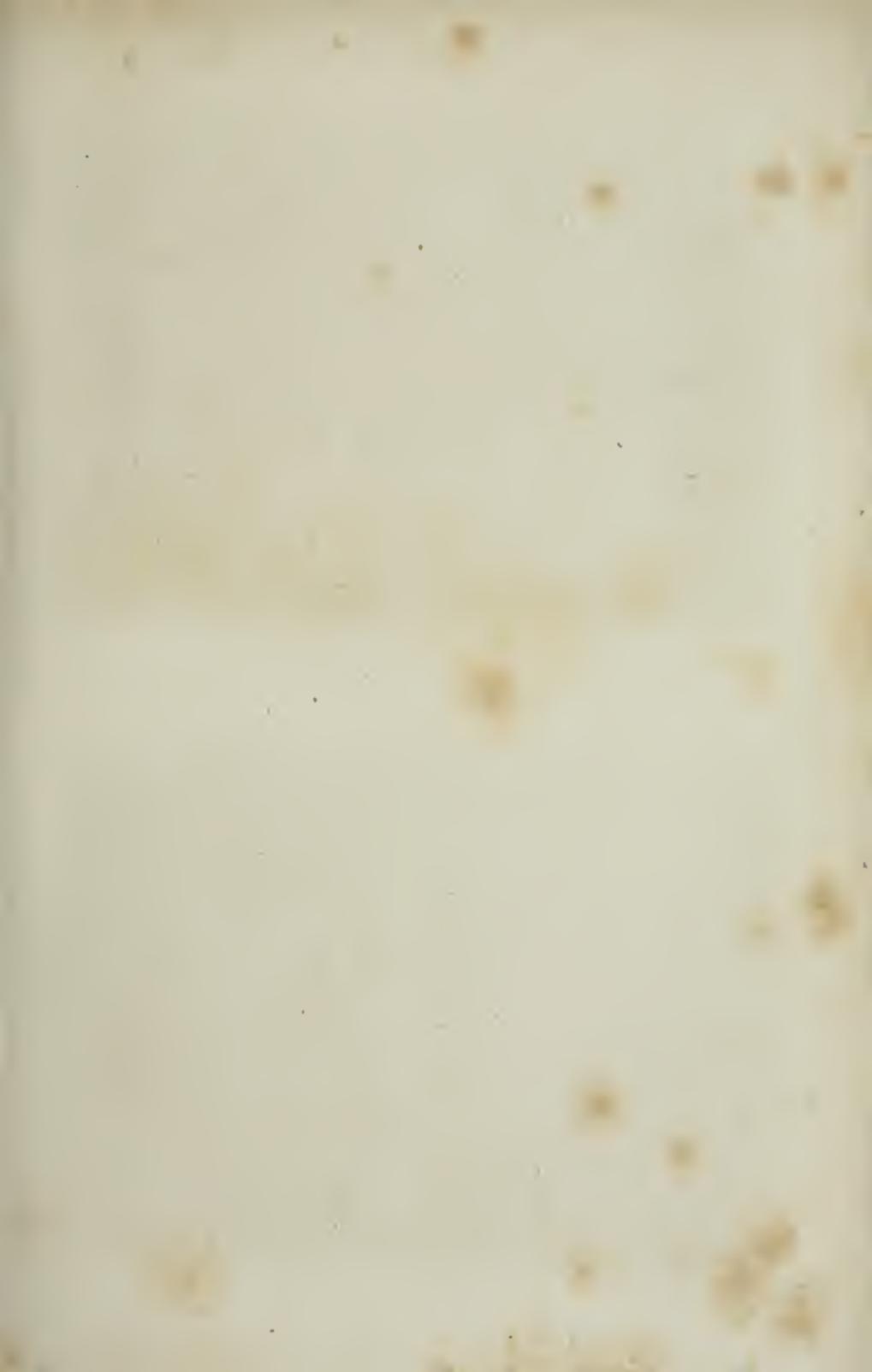




THE
WATER HALL
IN LIMA



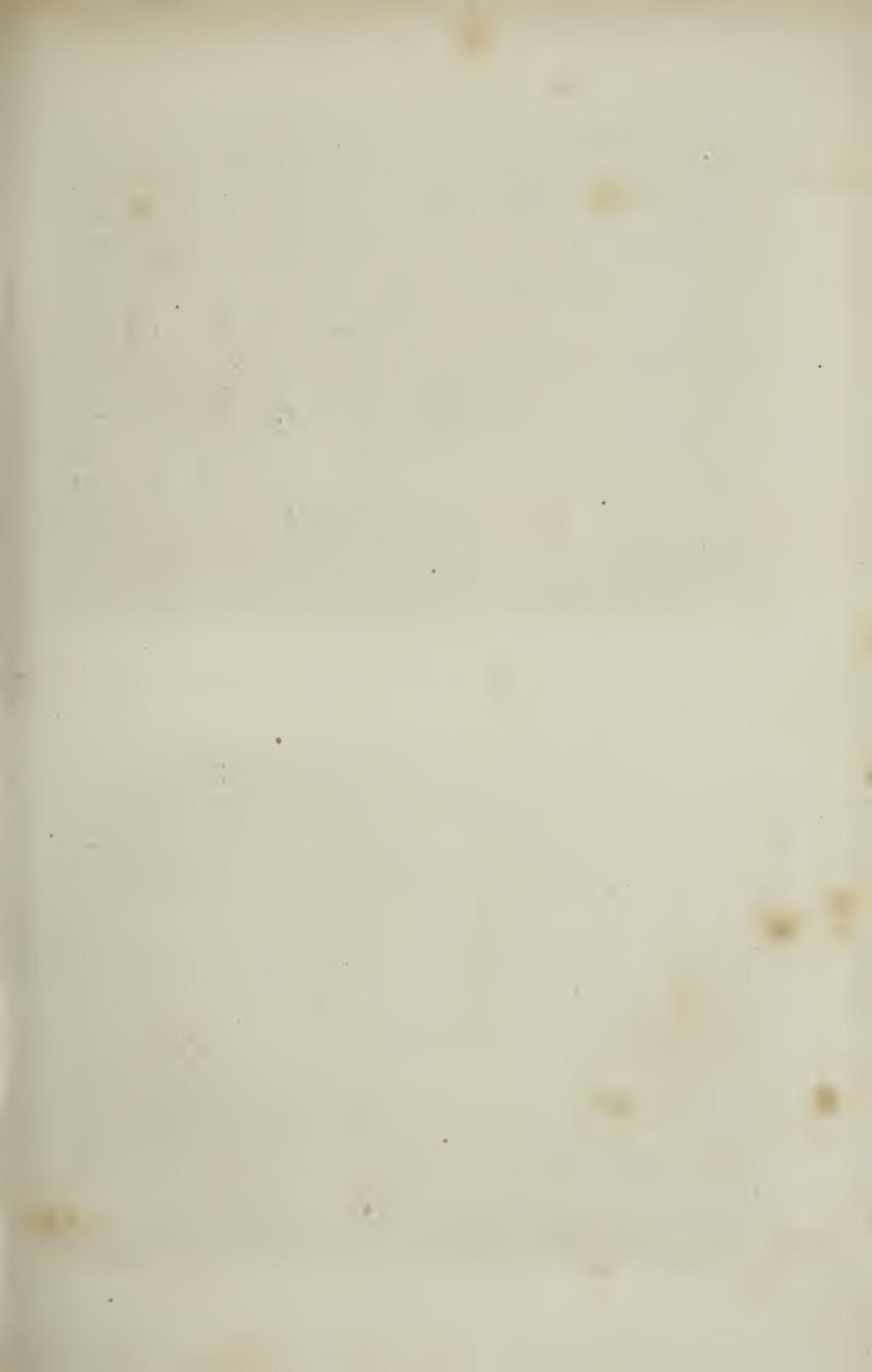
THE
EMPEROR'S PALACE
IN LIMA





ST. JOHNS, WESTMINSTER



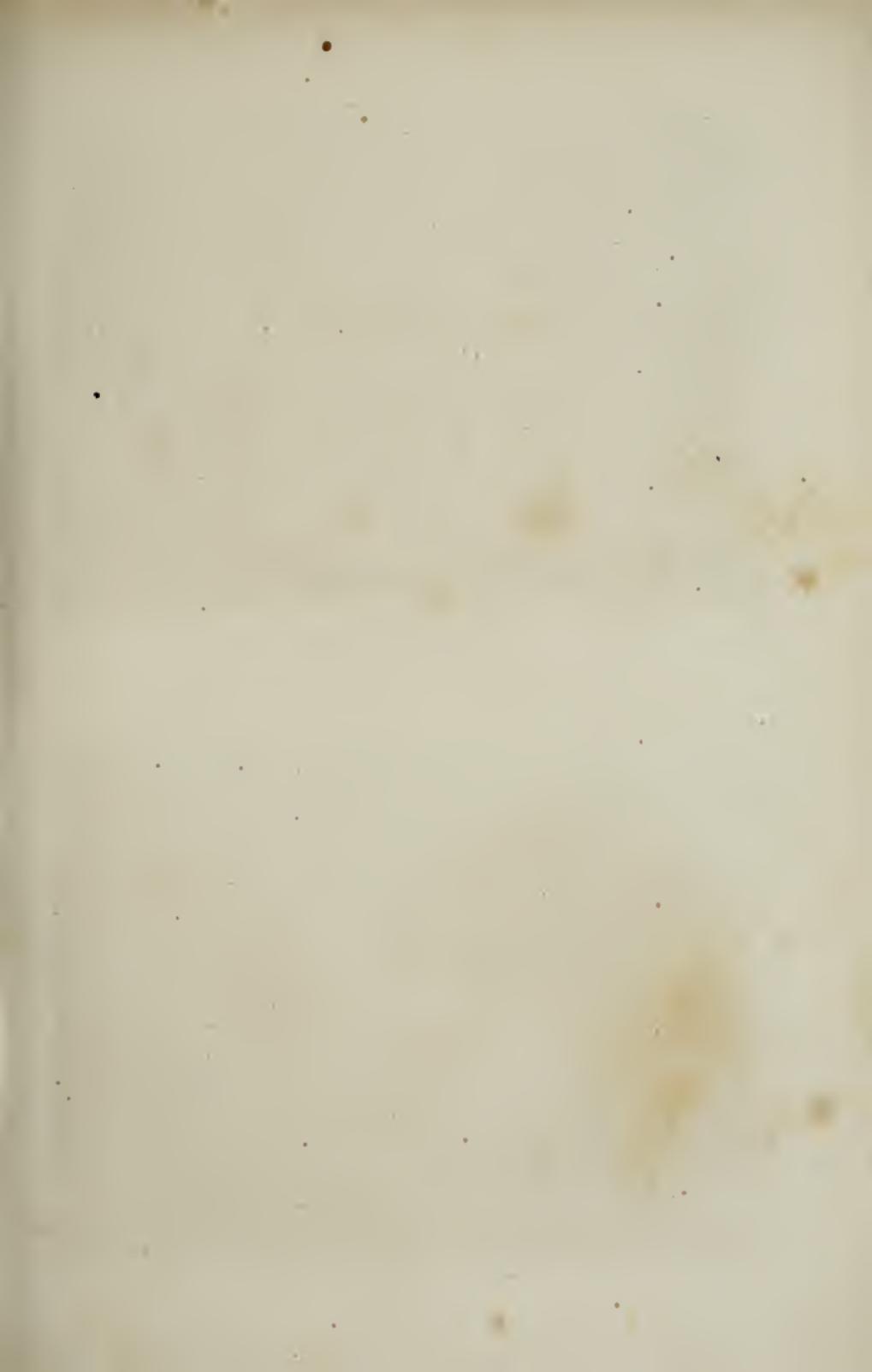




ST PAUL'S, COVENT GARDEN



ST SEPULCHRE

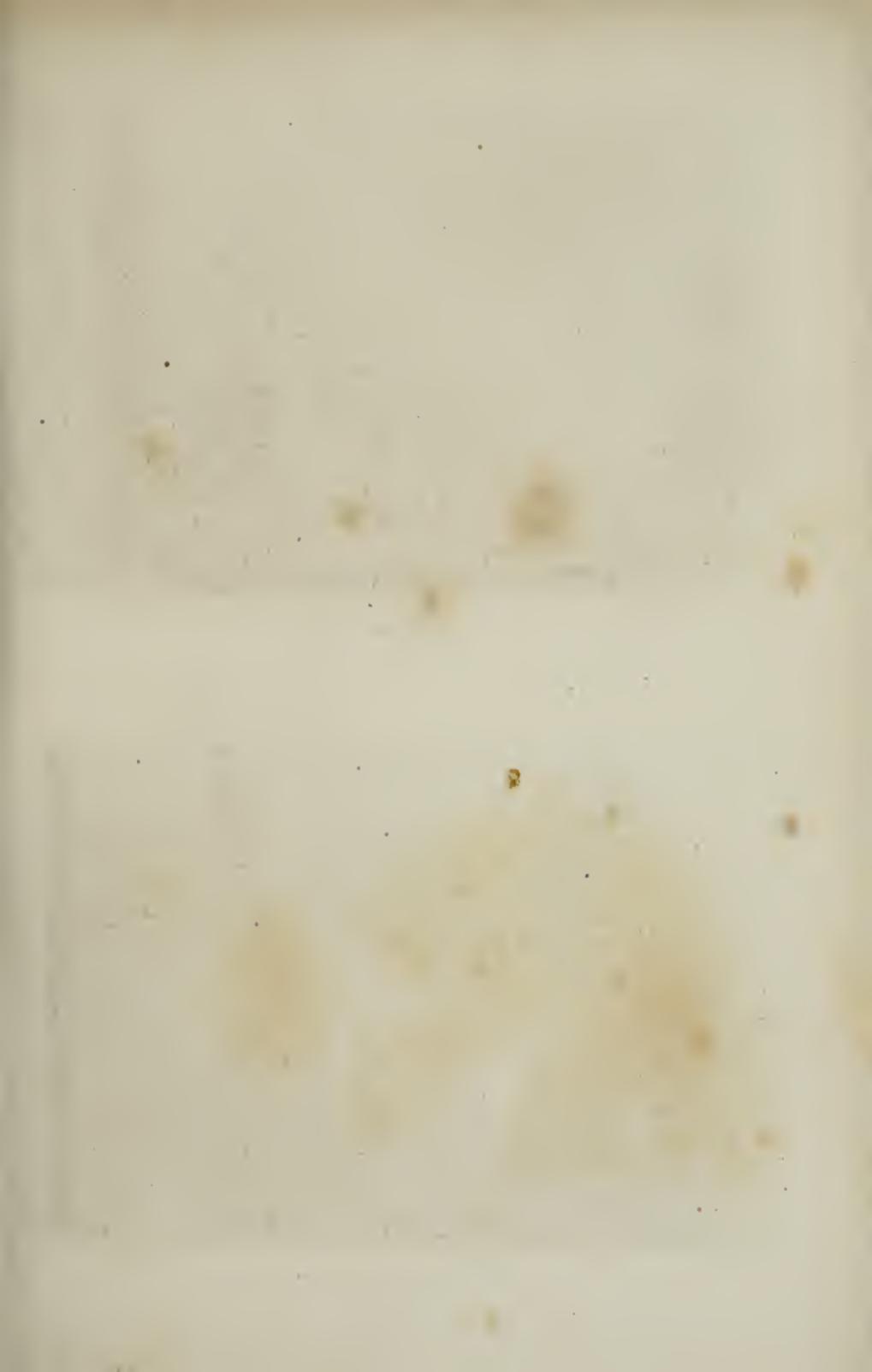




ST MICHAEL'S QUEENHITHE



ALL HALLOWS CHIPPING THAME ST

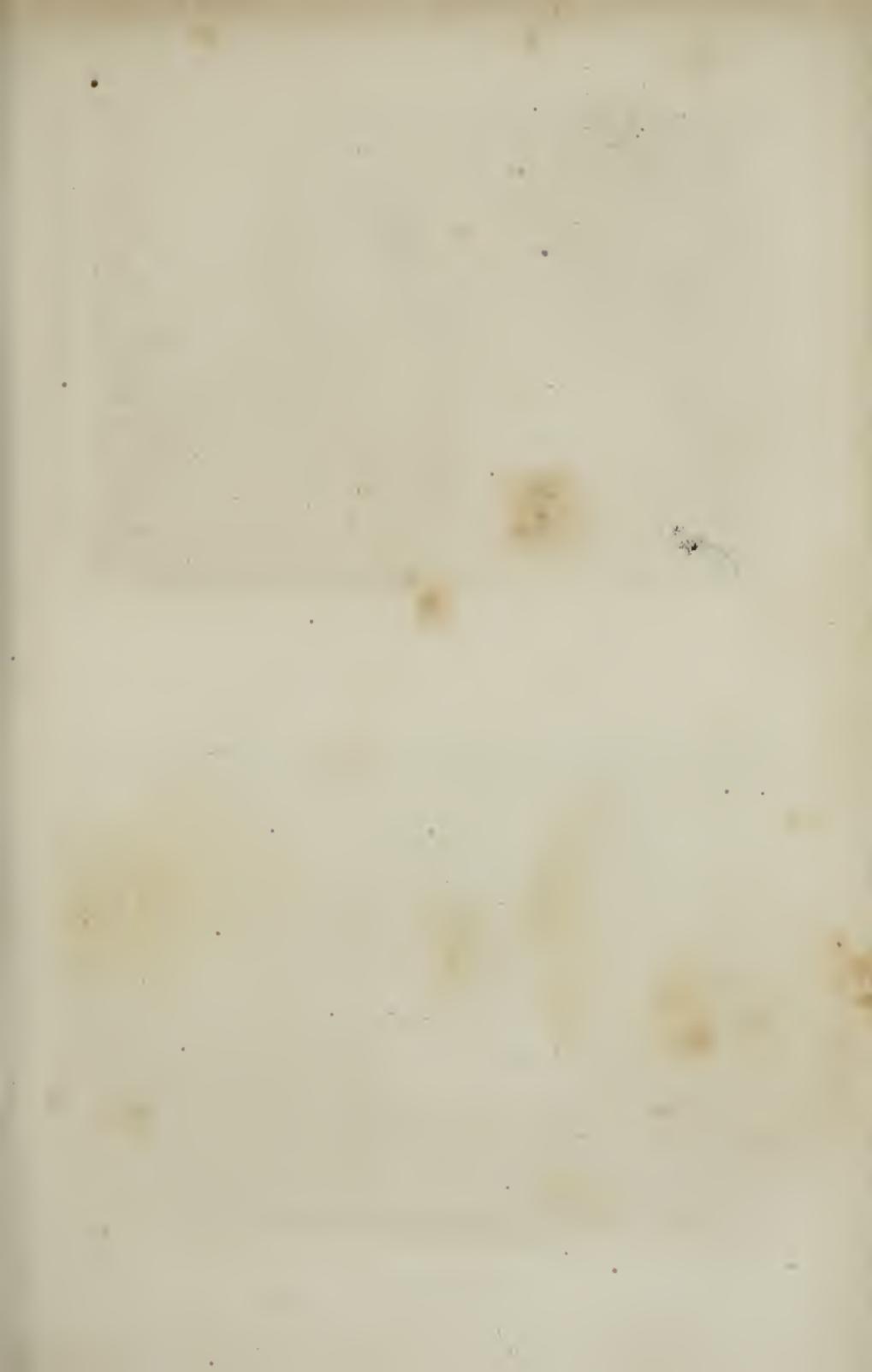




CRIPPLEGATE CHURCH



ST DIONIS BACKCHURCH,
Fenchurch St





ST BOTOLPH, BISHOPSGATE



ST MARY, WHITECHAPEL





HIGHGATE CHURCH FROM THE CEMETERY.



KENSAL GREEN CEMETERY (ENTRANCE LODGE).





ST. JOHNS CHURCH, UPPER HOLLOWAY,



HIGHBURY COLLEGE

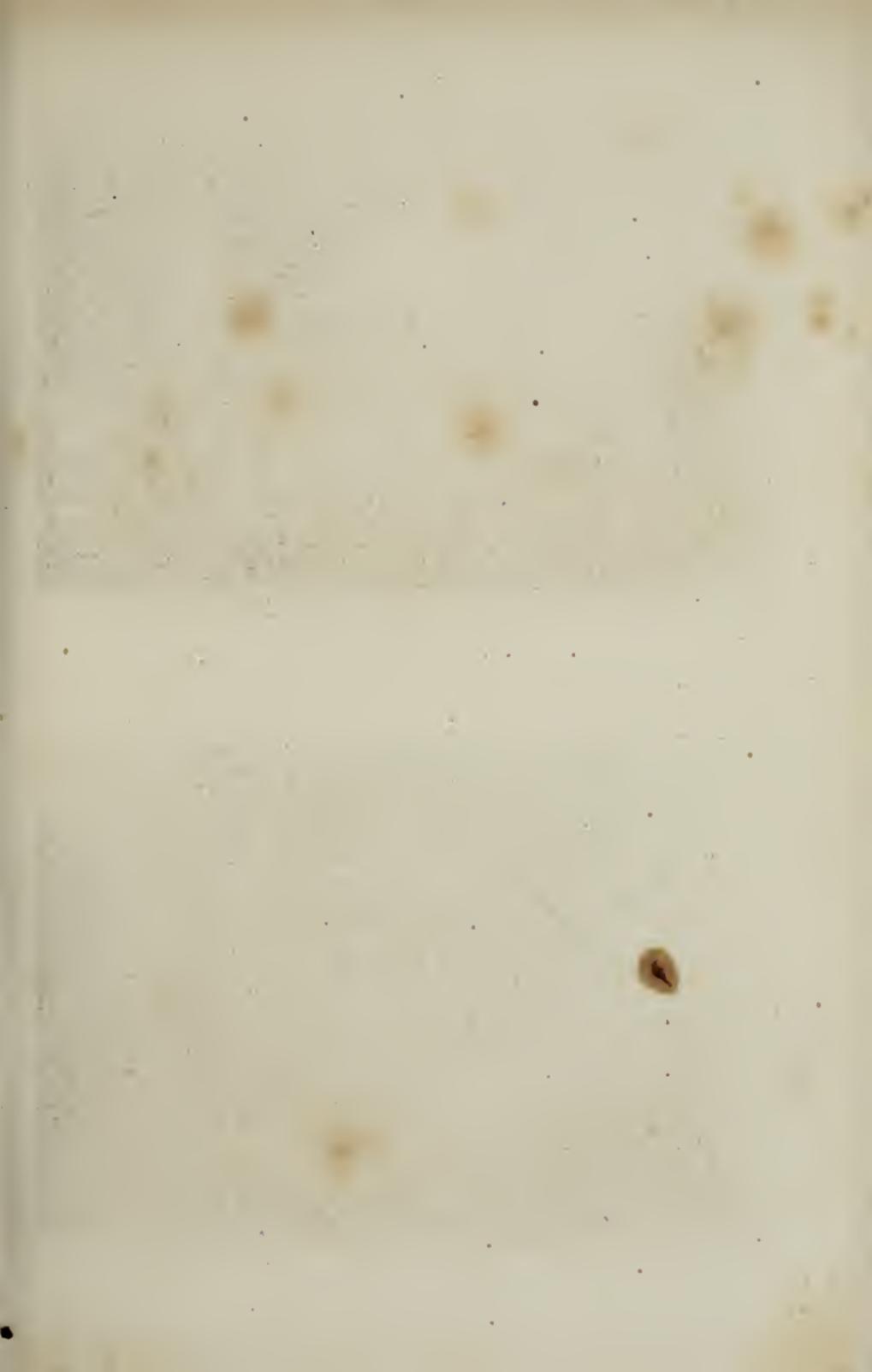




ST. MICHAEL'S - CHESTER S^Q



TOWNDES - SQUARE





ST PAUL'S THEATRE

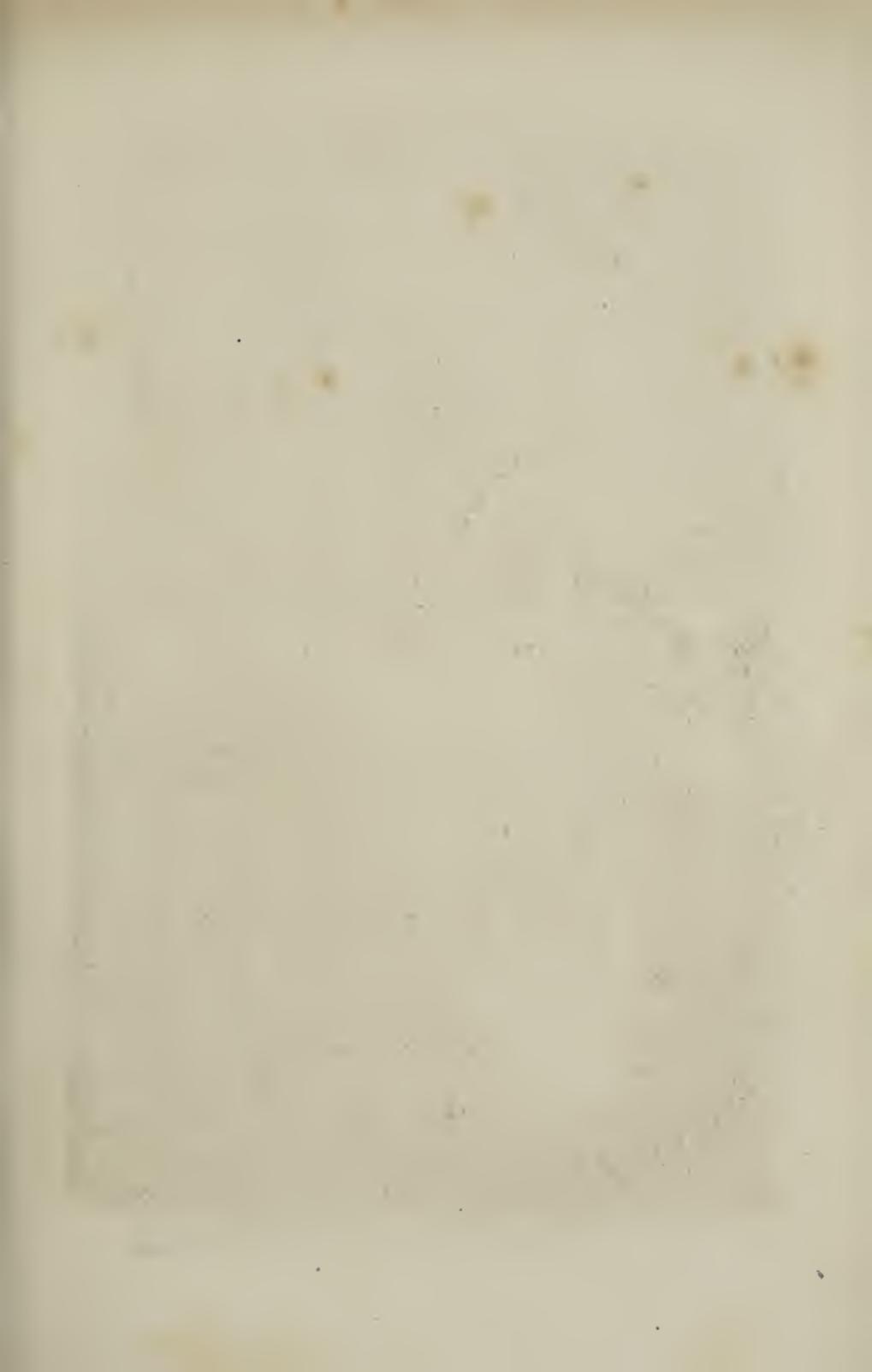


DRURY LANE AND LONDON STONE
See page 11





ST. DAVID'S CATHEDRAL





ST. PAUL'S CATHEDRAL

two stories over the shops. It is moreover well ventilated. A large proportion of the shops are *devoted* to the sale of toys and trinkets.

THE CHURCHES OF THE METROPOLIS.

ST. PAUL'S CATHEDRAL.

ST. SAVIOUR'S.—*Southwark.*

ST. MARY'S.—*Whitechapel.*

ST. SWITHIN'S CHURCH.—*Cannon-street.*

ST. OLAVE'S.—*Tooley-street.*

ST. DIONIS BACKCHURCH.

ST. MICHAEL'S.—*Chester Square,*
Pimlico.

ST. KATHERINE'S.—*Regent's Park.*

ST. SEPULCHRE'S.—*Old Bailey.*

THE TEMPLE CHURCH.

WESTMINSTER ABBEY.

ST. BOTOLPH'S.—*Bishospgate-street.*

ST. GILES.—*Cripplegate.*

ST. MICHAEL'S.—*Queenhithe.*

ALLHALLOWS.—*Queenhithe.*

ST. PAUL'S.—*Covent Garden.*

ST. JOHN'S.—*Westminster.*

ST. JOHN'S.—*Holloway.*

HIGHGATE CHURCH.

UPON the abstract question of the expediency of a national church establishment it would be foreign to our purpose to enter. We must, notwithstanding, be excused in saying, that there is something in the *ideal* of a national church which must strike every mind as that which is both delightful and desirable. To have a whole country divided into small sections, with a church of moderate size, erected for the public worship of God by the inhabitants of each section, having a pious and learned clergyman, of their own choice, resident amongst them, to conduct the public services of the sanctuary, to visit the sick and the dying, to superintend the education of the poor, and to administer relief to the temporal wants of his parishioners. This, we repeat, presents a picture with which every mind must be delighted. And, if this be added, what any well regu

lated church system must require, a diocesan or presbytery, to superintend a certain number of parishes within a district, little else could be desired. Parish ministers, with such a state of things, would be devoted to the duties of their holy vocation, whilst every parishioner, of whatever *grade*, would look up to the pastor, as to a friend, for counsel and guidance. The bishop or presbyter watching over the conduct of each minister within the district, hearing complaints, and preventing, or rectifying any abuse or innovation which might chance to arise. The good which such a state of things must produce would be of incalculable extent. Yet such, according to the New Testament, was the state of the primitive church, when Christian ministers and Christian people were “of one heart, and of one mind, striving together for the faith of the gospel.”

Should the question be asked, where is such a church to be found? We fear the answer must be—no where! Certainly not in the corrupt Church of Rome, or in the half-reformed Church of England, as by law established. Still there is no reason why our national church may not, by legislative means be restored to a state of primitive Christianity. Only let the abuses which were so unhappily permitted to remain at the time of the reformation be corrected, together with those which have since been accumulating, and an approximation, at least, to the purity of apostolic times may be hoped for. But whilst the orthodox articles of our church are to be vitiated by popish-like canons, and a contradictory rubric; while the spirituality of our liturgy continues to be defiled by the introduction of unmeaning and superstitious ceremonies; while the introduction of pious, learned, and faithful ministers are restrained from entering the church at all, or having entered it, are over-

whelmed by the number of clergymen holding benefices, which patronage alone can confer, however unable or unwilling such individuals may be for their sacred office, or without reference being made to the wishes of the people in the choice of a pastor; while the ample funds of the established church are to be spent by lay-appropriators, pluralists, non-residents, and such like, to the great injury of curates, or subordinate ministers; while abuses, such as these, and others which might be enumerated, are suffered to remain, the clergy, as a body of men, will continue to be disliked and despised, because their appropriate work is so inefficiently fulfilled. And this lamentable state of things continues, not from any insubordination in the people, as good Mr. Bickersteth, in his address on the late fast day, would have us believe; but because the clergy have rendered themselves unworthy of being followed.

There are in the Church of England, we rejoice to know, many ministers of a different spirit, who would be an ornament to any church; but the foregoing lamentable statement is not hereby neutralized. Whether an ecclesiastical commission, or the appointment of new bishops, either for newly made sees, at home or abroad, or any other partial measure can do good, let others determine; our impression is, that nothing short of a thorough reform in our church will be of any use to the subjects of Great Britain, or even to the great body of the clergy themselves.

The history of the Church of England, at and since the period of the reformation, is an unhappy one. There are, however, some representations of our English reformation made by those who would, we suppose, call themselves *high churchmen*, which are so much opposed to the page of history that the authors of them must

be pronounced lying prophets. Such views are to be found in the Oxford tracts, Palmer's *Origines*, and Dr. Hook's Sermon, preached before the Queen in 1838. An epitome of these may be thus briefly given :—“*That in the sixteenth century, the Church of England was reformed, not by lay authority, but by a reformation of herself; that her bishops then released themselves from the uncanonical and usurped foreign jurisdiction of the pope, in which the inferior clergy concurred;—that the different regulations enjoined as to the omission or insertion of certain articles in the creeds and liturgy were acquiesced in by the whole nation—the clergy and the laity,—the convocation and the parliament;—that for eleven years after the accession of Elizabeth, the Romanists knelt at the altars, and joined in the liturgy of the self-reformed Church of England;—that the separation of the Romanists from the original true reformed Church of England is to be dated from the year 1572, when Pius V. excommunicated Queen Elizabeth;—that the schism was carried on by the missionaries who came from foreign parts, and has been since perpetuated by a certain number of the followers of the pope;—and that the Protestant bishops of the three kingdoms, at the present day, are the undoubted representatives, by episcopal succession, of the bishops of the Celtic and Anglo-saxon churches.*” These assertions we repeat are untrue.

The facts, we think, may be told in very few words. The minds of the people of England had ever since the times of Wickliff been turned to matters of religion, a great desire existing for a reformation in the church. This, from time to time, became so strong, that the government experienced considerable difficulty in its suppression. The outbreak, under Lord Cobham, has already been noticed in the historical part

of our work. Luther, a native of Isleben, began to speak freely against the errors of the Romish church, when the pontiff, Leo X. hurled the thunder of his anathema at him, by sending a *bull*, charging him with heresy, and threatening excommunication within sixty days. Luther now thought it high time to protect himself. He therefore appealed from the pontiff to a general council, and then left the communion of a corrupt and superstitious church by a voluntary retreat. On the 10th of December, 1520, in the presence of an immense multitude, he committed the *bull* which had been published to the flames, together with the papal decretals and canons. This daring act of the reformer seemed to shake the papacy to its centre, producing a strong feeling in every country of Europe.

At this time, Henry VIII. was the reigning sovereign of England, and who having been educated in a strict attachment to the church of Rome, wrote a book in Latin against the principles of Luther, sending a copy of it to the Roman pontiff, who duly appreciating such a performance from so august a personage, conferred on Henry the title of *defender of the faith*, an appellation retained by the sovereigns of England to the present time. Luther published a reply, in which, regardless of the dignity of his antagonist, he treated the monarch with more than his accustomed acrimony; and victory in the dispute was assigned to the reformer.

From the present disposition of the king, nothing seemed more unlikely than that he should, in any way, assist in promoting the reformation. But his pride and his lust, at length brought about that separation, from which his reason and his prejudices had revolted. He became anxious to divorce his wife, Queen Catherine, under the specious pretext that his conscience was ill at ease, for having married his brother's widow.

A more substantial reason for such a step was, however, to be found in the king's attachment to Anne Boleyn, a lady possessing considerable charms. Application was made to the pontiff; but the process being more tedious than the impatience of kingly lust, Henry determined, at all events to marry, and to dissolve his connexion with the see of Rome. His chancellor, the celebrated Wolsey, was disgraced on the iniquitous pretext of having, contrary to a statute of Richard II. known as the statute of *provisors*, procured bulls from Rome, particularly one investing himself with the legatine power. The entire dismemberment of England from Rome soon followed. It was pretended that all the clergy had violated the same statute; and, in 1532, an acknowledgment was extorted from the convocation, besides the exaction of a fine, that the king was the *protector and the supreme head of the church and clergy of England*. The parliament, which assembled in 1534, passed an act, conferring on the king the title of the only supreme head, on earth, of the Church of England, and acknowledged his inherent power to visit and repress, to redress, reform, order, correct, restrain, or amend, all errors, heresies, abuses, offences, contempts, and enormities, which fell under any spiritual authority or jurisdiction. Bishops were to be appointed by a *congé d' elire* from the crown. Convocations to be assembled by the king's authority only; and no new canons to be made without his consent. In compliance with this law, the bishops took out new commissions from the crown, in which all their spiritual and episcopal authority was expressly affirmed to be derived ultimately from the civil magistrate, and to be entirely dependant on his good pleasure. Such was the *origin*, and such the fundamental principle of the Church of England, and such it continues to be.

That Dr. Thomas Cranmer, who was introduced to the king in 1528, and afterwards succeeded Archbishop Warham in the see of Canterbury, was concerned in effecting these changes is undoubted. Cranmer has received his full meed of praise for the part which he took in the reformation of the church. His position, as regards his capricious master was, it must be confessed, extremely difficult. But that he is justly chargeable with being a pander to the king's vices, maintaining opinions contrary to known facts, taking oaths of celibacy and obedience to the pope, with mental reservation to keep neither, being actually married at the very time ; pronouncing at one time Henry's marriage with Anne Boleyn legal, and at another void ; these, and other acts, have justly exposed Cranmer to severe censure. He was naturally timid and vacillating ; although in many things he greatly promoted *the new doctrines*. With the consent of the convocation, (1534), he completed and printed a translation of the Bible. He also published the King's Primer, a book containing doctrines bordering upon Protestantism, and likewise a compilation called the Bishop's Book, inculcating the same.

Notwithstanding the opposition of Cranmer, the *six articles* were published in 1539, and for which, with the personal interference of the king, the parliament had passed an act, known amongst Protestants by the name of the *bloody statute*, and which set forth,—1. That in the sacrament there was no substance of bread and wine, but only the natural body and blood of Christ : 2. That Christ was entirely in each kind, and so communion in both was not necessary : 3. That priests by the law of God, ought not to marry : 4. That vows of chastity taken after the age of twenty-one ought to be kept : 5. That private masses were lawful and useful : 6. That auricular confession

was necessary, and ought to be retained. For the breach of these doctrines the severest temporal punishments were annexed.

Yet the public services of the church, until 1544, remained unchanged, the mass being celebrated as heretofore in the Latin language ; and the images, vestments, and other *frippery* of Romanism, continued. Henry was neither *papist* or *protestant*; and hence the abettors of the old religion, and of the new learning, were alike exposed to danger : the former for denying the king's supremacy, the latter for disbelieving the doctrines of the papacy. To these harsh and terrific measures Cranmer suffered himself to be a guilty party.

The extraordinary state of religion in England at this time, and of the king's mind also, may be learned from the following memorable fact. The continental reformers had held a meeting, first at Smalcald, and afterwards at Francfort, for the purpose of forming a solemn alliance and confederation in defence of their religion. To this *diet* the princes favouring a reformation were invited, and amongst others the King of England ; the stipulations were to this effect ; —“ That the king should encourage, promote, and maintain the true doctrine of Christ, as it was contained in the confession of Augsburg, and defend the same at the next general council ;—that he should not agree to any council summoned by the bishop of Rome, but protest against it, and neither submit to its decrees, nor suffer them to be respected in his dominions ;—that he should never allow the Roman pontiff to have any pre-eminence or jurisdiction in his dominions ;—that he should advance 100,000 crowns for the use of the confederacy, and double that sum if it became necessary.” To these proposals the king replied,—“ that he would maintain and promote the true doctrine of Christ; but as the true ground of

that doctrine lay only in the holy scriptures, he would not accept, at any one's hand, what should be his faith, or that of his kingdom, and therefore desired that they would send over learned men to confer with him, in order to promote a religious union between him and the confederate princes. He, moreover, thought that the regulation of the ceremonial part of religion, ought to be left to the choice of each sovereign for his own dominions." This negotiation, as might have been expected, came to nothing ; the German princes being sensible that they could not succeed with Henry unless they would allow him an absolute dictatorship in matters of religion.

Such was the wretched state of the church at Henry's death, which happened in 1547. Edward VI., his son, then only nine years of age, succeeded him. An extraordinary statute had passed the year after the birth of this prince, in which it was enacted, "That if the king's heirs should reign before they were of age, the proclamations set out by the privy council should have the like force in law as an act of parliament." Under this act the removal of abuses in the church immediately commenced. The bishops were required to renew their commissions, and to hold their sees only during the king's pleasure, and to perform the episcopal function as his delegates. The next step towards a purer worship in the church took place at the beginning of the second year of the king's reign, when the carrying of candles on Candlemas-day, ashes on Ash Wednesday, and palm on Palm Sunday, were forbidden. A general order soon followed for the removal of *all images* out of the churches.

Soon after, the Book of Common Prayer was thoroughly revised, being, with a few exceptions, the same which is used in the church at the present time. A service for the ordination

of ministers was likewise published ; and an order for the removal of *altars*, moveable tables being placed in their room : the reason alleged for this, was that both the *thing* and the *name* encouraged the belief of expiatory sacrifice, a doctrine now repudiated. The articles of religion, nearly as they now exist, were compiled. Farther improvements were also made in the Book of Common Prayer, especially the scriptural confession of sin at the commencement of the service. The canons were in active preparation ;—when the young king died. We may just add, that during this reign the best understanding existed between the Church in England and the reformed churches abroad ; Martyn and Bucer having for some time resided in England, the one at Oxford, the other at Cambridge. The absurd notion of *apostolical succession*, or the invalidity of ordination not episcopal, forming at this period, no part of the belief of our church. Had it pleased God to have spared the young king's life a few years longer, the probability is, that those errors and abuses which still remained in the church, would have been removed. Short as Edward's reign was, it may, notwithstanding, be pronounced *the golden age of the reformed Church of England* :—purity of doctrine, and simplicity of worship, having been to a great extent restored.

A return to the *harlotry* of spiritual *Babylon*, on the accession of Mary was a lamentable event for the reformed religion ; the Church of England being again delivered over to the *tender mercies* of Rome. The history of Mary's reign need not be repeated.

Neither, unhappily, has our national church much to boast of during the long reign of Elizabeth. She had indeed those about her when she began to reign, who could have

guided her into a purer path ;—such men as Sandys, Grindall, Pilkington, Jewell, Horn, Parkhurst, Bentham and others, the worthy successors of Hooper and Coverdale, of Ridley and Latimer, had they not been restrained, to use the words of a virulent writer in the British Critic, by the “*strong Tudor arm*” of the virgin queen. Elizabeth was always in her heart a papist,—the veriest bigot to the *pomps* of the *old religion*; and but for the love of supremacy, and the spoils of the church, would have been so overtly as a sovereign. She hated reform, retaining the altar, the crucifix, and the candles, contrary to law, in her own chapel. And while, from political motives, she became the patroness of Protestants abroad, she ruled her Protestant subjects at home with a rod of iron.

A convocation was held in London in 1562, confirming the articles of the church, as expressed in the Book of Common Prayer. An act of uniformity was afterwards passed, when pains and penalties were inflicted upon those who absented themselves from the public services of the church. The clergy of other denominations being put upon a level with rogues and felons. The great error of the times was, that *all* were presumed to be, and treated as, members of the established church; the popish practices of fines and imprisonments being employed against all seceders, instead of forbearance and charity. No thanks to the church that such unrighteous laws no longer disgrace our statute book ! “ So absolute,” says Hume, “ was the authority of the crown, that the precious spark of liberty had been kindled, and was preserved by the Puritans alone; and it was to this sect that the English owe the whole freedom of their constitution.”

Hopes were entertained that Elizabeth’s successor would have introduced some change for the better. Far from this

being the case, England is mainly indebted to him for raising those storms, which at a later period laid both church and state in one common ruin. The canons of 1603, which have occasioned so much heart-burning in our times, are due to James I.; but which having never received the sanction of parliament, are certainly not binding upon the laity, probably not even upon the clergy. These canons were passed by the first convocation, which met after the king's accession. They were drawn up by the fiery Bancroft, Bishop of London, a divine of rough temper, a perfect creature of prerogative, and a declared enemy of the civil and religious liberties of his country; he also presided at this convocation. The book of canons contains *one hundred and forty-two articles*, partly collected from the episcopal and synodical acts of Edward VI. and Elizabeth, and present a sad specimen of the spirit of the church at that time. They are written in the true *anathema* style, would disgrace even the *Vatican* itself, and have been a scandal to our Protestant Church from that time to the present. The canons, notwithstanding, well merit a perusal. Our limits forbidding enlargement, we select one only as a specimen.—*Canon 10.* “ *Whovever shall affirm that such ministers as refuse to subscribe to the form and number of God's worship in the Church of England, and their adherents, may truly take to themselves the name of another church not established by law, and shall publish that their pretended church has groaned under the burden of certain grievances, imposed on them by the Church of England, let them be excommunicated, ipso facto, and not restored, &c.*”

Such is a faithful portraiture of our half-reformed national Church of England, drawn in 1603; and such we most sincerely lament to add she remains in 1847. Yet would we

pray for the peace of our *spiritual Jerusalem*, (Psalm 122), and with all her faults would love her still!

In closing our remarks, we must just notice the extraordinary position of other sections of the church, presumed to be in connexion with that of England. About the year 1670, the settlers in Virginia, then a colony of Great Britain, being desirous of having a clerical establishment in connexion with the Church of England, readily and most properly, had their request granted, and a bishop was accordingly consecrated and sent out. The colonists had previously perceived that every favour coming from England was sure to be clogged with something offensive, and the Anglo-American Church, with surprise, found that a *rider* was annexed to the charter of incorporation, confining the functions of their ministers strictly to America ; so that an ordained clergyman coming to England, became in fact a layman : *pulpit* and *desh* being alike barred against him.

But the anomalies of the Anglican Church are still more singular in connexion with the Scottish Episcopal Church. This branch of episcopacy began on the accession of William III. in 1689, forming a *scion* of that schism which arose from the *non-juring* bishops of England. The Scottish Episcopal Church therefore, at its origin, was by English law, pronounced to consist of a *knot of traitors*, in politics, and of *schismatics*, in religion ; and in the true spirit of Church intolerance, the *non-jurors* in Scotland were not permitted to hold any meetings whatever for religious worship. In the year 1788, however, on the death of the pretender, the Scottish Episcopalian professed their willingness to pray for the present reigning family. This was a reason why the law should relax ; and the free exercise of the clerical duties of

their ministers should have followed had they conformed to the whole ritual of the church, as the English clergy were obliged to do, according to the act of uniformity. But it is notorious, that the episcopal church in Scotland has *a communion* and *confirmation service* of her own, in which prayers and ceremonies are introduced contrary to the rites of the Anglican church. The Scottish Episcopalians, moreover, have *a code of canons* differing from, and even more absurd than those of England. They were last printed in 1838, having been first revised, amended, and enacted by an ecclesiastical synod, holden for that purpose. In itself there may be no objection to all this; but why the Scottish clergy thus seceding should be admitted for two successive Sundays, but not for more, into the pulpits of a church, requiring uniformity, is what we cannot understand.

But this is not all. Formerly, the congregations of English Episcopalians, dwelling in Scotland, were regarded virtually as under the episcopate of London, and occasionally visited by the bishop for spiritual purposes. But since the Scottish bishops have been permitted to assume some authority, no Anglican bishop has made a visitation to English congregations located in Scotland. On the contrary, a recommendation has been given to the English clergy, by the present Bishop of London, in ignorance, we hope, of the facts of the case, to submit to the *ghostly* authority of the Scottish bishops.

The result has been most disastrous. No confirmation in the English episcopal congregations has taken place for some years past, the young people having been kept either from full communion with the church, or admitted irregularly. Most, if not all, of the clergymen ordained in England, but serving churches in Scotland, having been obliged, from conscientious

motives, formally to retire from the Scottish Episcopal Church, and have been *anathematized* for so doing. We do not hesitate most advisedly to say, that the *Scottish Episcopal Church* is the very cradle of Tractarianism ; and that it is the duty of every English clergyman to have no connexion with her.

We regret that we cannot enlarge. For the amusement, however, if not for the edification of our readers, we publish a copy of what we sincerely trust will never appear again, *a protestant bull*. Its author is *William Skinner, Doctor in Divinity, Bishop of Aberdeen, and Primus of the Episcopal Church in Scotland*. It is extracted from the minutes of the synod of the diocese of Aberdeen, held the 9th and 10th of August, 1843. The gentleman herein denounced, is a clergyman of the *Church of England*, in full orders, a graduate of the *University of Oxford*, and under no ecclesiastical censure.

“ IN THE NAME OF GOD. AMEN. Whereas, the Reverend Sir William Dunbar, late minister of St. Paul’s Chapel, Aberdeen, and a presbyter of this diocese, received by letters dismissory from the Lord Bishop of London, forgetting his duty as a priest of the *Catholic Church*, did, on the twelfth day of May last, in a letter addressed to us, William Skinner, Doctor in Divinity, Bishop of Aberdeen, wilfully renounce his canonical obedience to us, his proper ordinary, and withdrew himself, as he pretended, from the jurisdiction of the Scottish Episcopal Church; and notwithstanding our earnest and affectionate remonstrances repeatedly addressed to him, did obstinately persist in that, his most undutiful and wicked act, contrary to his ordination vows, and his solemn promise of canonical obedience, whereby the said Sir William Dunbar hath violated every principle of duty which the laws of the *Catholic Church* have

recognised as binding on her priests, and hath placed himself in a state of *open schism*, and whereas the said Sir William Dunbar hath, moreover, continued to *officiate in defiance of our authority*; therefore, WE, WILLIAM SKINNER, DOCTOR IN DIVINITY, BISHOP OF ABERDEEN, AFORESAID, SITTING WITH OUR CLERGY IN SYNOD, THIS TENTH DAY OF AUGUST, IN THE YEAR OF OUR LORD, ONE THOUSAND EIGHT HUNDRED AND FORTY-THREE, AND ACTING UNDER THE PROVISIONS OF CANON XLI. DO DECLARE THAT THE SAID SIR WILLIAM DUNBAR HATH CEASED TO BE A PRESBYTER OF THIS CHURCH, AND THAT ALL HIS MINISTERIAL ACTS ARE WITHOUT AUTHORITY, AS BEING PERFORMED APART FROM CHRIST'S MYSTICAL BODY, WHEREIN THE ONE SPIRIT IS; AND WE DO MOST EARNESTLY AND SOLEMNLY WARN ALL FAITHFUL PEOPLE TO AVOID ALL COMMUNION WITH THE SAID SIR WILLIAM DUNBAR, IN PRAYERS AND SACRAMENTS, OR IN ANY WAY GIVING COUNTENANCE TO HIM IN HIS PRESENT IRREGULAR AND SINFUL COURSE, LEST THEY BE PARTAKERS WITH HIM IN HIS SIN, AND THEREBY EXPOSE THEMSELVES TO THE THREATENING DENOUNCED AGAINST THOSE WHO CAUSE DIVISIONS IN THE CHURCH; FROM WHICH DANGER WE MOST HEARTILY PRAY THAT GOD OF HIS GREAT MERCY WOULD KEEP ALL THE FAITHFUL PEOPLE COMMITTED TO OUR CHARGE, THROUGH JESUS CHRIST OUR LORD. AMEN."

We have been accustomed to consider this extraordinary document very seriously, believing as we do, that it would be a libel upon the bishops of England and Ireland to suppose that there is one amongst them who would have had either the *imprudence*, or the *impudence*, to have published such a *farrago of nonsense*. Travellers coming from the north, however, give a different version, assuring us that Bishop Skinner, better

known in his diocese by the appellation of *We William*, is so nice a fellow, that the publication of this *bull was a mere Scotch show off*, not intended even to hurt a *flea*; and furthermore, that the *Primus* would not have exposed himself to the ridicule of his Presbyterian townsmen, in letting off such a *squib*, unless he had been well supplied with *brimstone*, by Mrs. Skinner, and one Patrick Cheyne, a learned canonist.

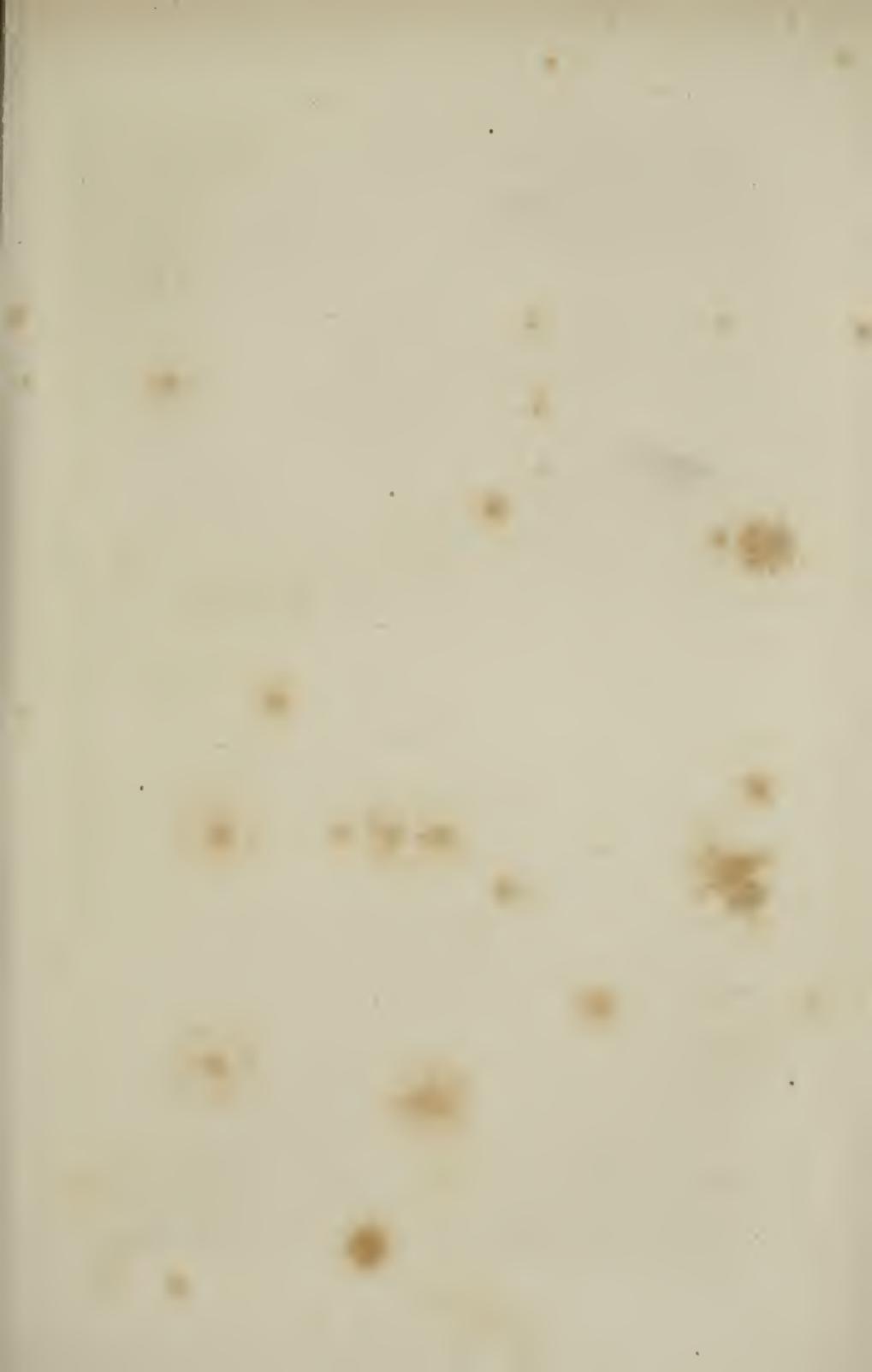
Be it so;—still the English episcopal congregations, and their ministers, in Scotland, must be protected; and if the bishops of our church cannot, or will not, do this, the sooner, in our humble judgment, the legislature of the country is applied to the better. A reformed House of Commons would, we believe, promptly put a hook into the nose of these *ghostly leviathans*, and thereby prevent the recurrence of such outrages for the future.

Of the noble, but useless edifice, called the **CATHEDRAL OF SAINT PAUL**, our space will permit us to say but little. It is the largest Protestant church ever built, and standing on rising ground, and in the centre of London properly so called, presents a most majestic appearance. It is also remarkable that this immense church was built, in thirty-five years, under one architect, Sir Christopher Wren, and during the life of one bishop, Dr. Compton. Its length within the walls, from east to west, is five hundred feet; from north to south, two hundred and eighty-six feet; the height, four hundred and four feet; and its entire cost, £1,500,000 sterling. Service is performed in the chapel every morning, Sundays excepted, at seven o'clock, during the summer, and eight o'clock in winter. The choral service is celebrated daily, at a quarter before ten A.M., and a quarter past three P.M. Sermons are preached

on Sundays, and saint days, and every Wednesday and Friday, during Lent.

Saint Paul's cathedral is, without doubt, the master-piece of its illustrious architect, presenting a good specimen of Italian architecture. Its form is that of a Latin cross, widened at the west end by projections; and where the north and south transept cross the naves are similar projections, forming buttresses to the cupola; each end of the transept likewise terminating by a beautiful semicircular portico. The intersection of the body of the cathedral, by the transepts, is formed into a grand and spacious area. The end of the choir terminates by a semicircular recess, in which stands the communion table. The church consists of a double tier of stories without, though only of one within; this is pronounced, by competent judges, to be the greatest defect in the building. The pillars of the lower stories are of the Corinthian order, those of the upper, of the Composite. The cupola is justly admired for its beauty and science. Above it is a lofty lantern, surmounted by a magnificent ball and cross, richly gilt. The principal front looks westward, having a magnificent portico, supporting a triangular pediment, the entablature of which represents, in low relief, the conversion of Saint Paul. The angles are surmounted by bell towers, of light, chaste, and uniform character.

Visitors may see all the *lions* of this splendid church for the sum of 4s. 4d. each person. A short extract from Lien Chi Altangi's letter to Fum Hoam, will form no inappropriate close. "I marched up," says the writer, "without farther ceremony, and was going to enter, when a person, who held the gate in his hand, told me I must pay first. I was surprised at such a demand, and asked the man, 'whether the people of England kept a show? whether the paltry sum he





F. TRIMISSE R. ABBEY

demanded was not a national reproach? whether it was not more to the honour of the country to let their magnificence, or their antiquities be openly seen, than thus meanly to tax a curiosity which tended to their own honour?"—(Citizen of the World, letter 13.)

THE ABBEY CHURCH OF ST. PETER'S, Westminster, was begun by Henry III., but not completed until the time of Sir Christopher Wren. It is built in a most splendid style of Gothic architecture, many parts of which having gone to decay, have been repaired, or restored, within the last few years. This vast mausoleum—the final earthly resting-place of the sovereigns, nobles, statesmen, warriors, divines, and *literati* of England, cannot be visited without intense interest. The numerous chapels, and aisles, filled with historical *memoranda* of the past, may be viewed every week-day, from nine till six, excepting during the time of public service. The charge to each person is 6d. The dimensions of this stupendous building are as follow:—extreme length, from east to west, five hundred and thirty feet; transect, from north to south, two hundred and fourteen feet; width, at the west front, one hundred-and-nineteen feet; height, to ridge of roof, one hundred and forty-one feet; height of the two west towers, each, two hundred and twenty-five feet; and, height of the central tower, one hundred and fifty-three feet.

Many of the older churches having already been noticed in the historical part of our work, we forbear any further remarks, excepting to express our surprise that the authorities of St. Michael's, Pimlico, should have allowed such a cumbrous and unsightly church to have been erected within their district. The interior is even worse than the exterior, being imperfectly ventilated, having almost as many draughts as there are points

in the compass, and the various parts of the church so badly arranged, that even the mellifluous voice of the Rev. Mr. Harrison, the present incumbent, cannot be heard.

THE CHAPELS OF LONDON.

THE ROMAN CATHOLIC CHAPEL,
Finsbury.

FINSBURY CHAPEL.

THE UNITARIAN CHAPEL, *South
Place, Finsbury.*

ALBION CHAPEL, *Fore Street.*

"THE spirit of the Catholic Church," say our friends, the Romanists, "is to unite: that of the Protestant Church to divide." Assuming the fundamental principle of popery to be true, this assertion is doubtless correct. For if there be any power on earth competent, infallibly, to decide points of doctrine and discipline, then, by the assistance of the sword of the civil magistrate, uniformity may be easily obtained. On the contrary, if an appeal is made to Scripture, and the meaning of which every reader be allowed to judge for himself, then a diversity of opinions must follow. But the experience of past ages proves, that if compulsion can produce uniformity, it is but nominal; whereas the charitable forbearance of the Gospel would have maintained the real unity of the church, amid the diversity of opinions found amongst professing Christians. Moreover, the Roman Catholic Church, from the nature of her creed, may claim a right to exclusive salvation within her own *pale*; whereas no Protestant church, from her own principles, can have any such right.

Yet, it unfortunately happened that at the reformation, most of the Protestant churches, following the example of



UNITARIAN CHAPEL. SOUTH PLACE FINSBURY



ROMAN CATHOLIC CHAPEL MOORFIELDS



Rome, asserted the necessity of a compulsory uniformity ; and hereby destroyed the *real spiritual unity of the catholic or universal church*. The subtle, but amiable Hooker, in the preface to his Ecclesiastical Polity roundly asserts, “ That in litigious and controverted causes of such quality, *the will of God is to have them, (the people,) to do whatsoever the sentence of judicial and final decision shall determine, yea, though it seem in their private opinion to swerve utterly from that which is right.*” If so, liberty of conscience, and the right of private judgment are at an end. Unity in the church, after all, can only be made to exist on Christian principles—“ forbearing each other in love :” a complete toleration, therefore, in religion, must be the glory and safety of every free country. All who differ from the established religion of a country must be reckoned as *Dissenters*, be they Catholics, Presbyterians, Methodists, Independents, or otherwise ; and since the repeal of all our intolerant statutes, none are, in law, regarded as schismatics.

For the doctrines of popery we must refer our readers to the decrees (Concilii Tridentini Canones, &c.) of the Council of Trent, and to Dens’ (*Theologia Moralis et Dogmatica*) Theology. The usual morning service is what is called *mass*, and is declared to be a sacrifice offered to God for the living and the dead. It likewise has a reference throughout to the passion, &c., of the blessed Saviour, although probably this would not be apparent without a guide. The following detail of the analogy between *the mass* and the *gospel history* may be new to some of our readers.—1. The priest approaches the altar, signifying the entrance of Christ into the garden of Olives ;—2. The priest begins the service, “ *In nomine, &c.,*” corresponding to the Redeemer’s prayer, in the garden ;—3. The priest recites

the confession, (confiteor), indicating the bloody sweat of Christ ;—4. The priest kisses the altar, shewing the betraying of the Saviour by a kiss ;—5. The priest goes to the left side of the altar, expressive of the apprehension of Christ ;—6. The *introitum* (*Aufer a nobis, &c.,*) is read, commemorative of Christ being brought before Annas ;—7. The *kyrie eleison*, or Lord have mercy upon us, is three times repeated, because Peter denied his Lord three times ;—8. The priest, turning toward the people, says, (*Dominus vobiscum*) “The Lord be with you,” referring to the Lord looking upon Peter ;—9. The priest reads the epistle commemorative of Christ being accused before Pilate ;—10. The priest bows at the middle of the altar, repeating in a whisper, (*Munda cor, &c.,*) “Cleanse my heart, &c.,” expressive of the Redeemer’s silence before Herod ;—11. The gospel is read, shewing that Christ was sent from Herod to Pilate ;—12. The priest uncovers the chalice, indicating the disrobing of the Saviour to be scourged ;—13. The belief, (*Credo, &c.*) having been rehearsed, the priest consecrates the host, (*Suscipe, &c.*) referring to the scourging of Christ ;—14. The priest covers the cup after its consecration, expressive of Christ being crowned with thorns ;—15. The priest washes his hands, referring to Pilate’s declaring Christ innocent ;—16. The priest, turning toward the assistants, says, (*Orate fratres*), “Pray, my brethren,” &c.; to signify Christ being covered with a purple robe ;—17. The *preface* is said, (*Per omnia*) “Through all ages, &c.,” declarative of the Redeemer’s sentence to be crucified ;—18. The priest prays for all the faithful living, corresponding to the leading forth of Christ to be crucified ;—19. The priest covers both the host and the cup with his hands, shewing that St. Veronica presented

her handkerchief to her Lord ;—20. The signs of the cross are made on the host, and on the cup, to represent Christ nailed to the cross ;—21. The adoration and elevation of the host, refer to the elevation of the cross ;—22. The elevation of the cup, shewing that Christ's blood was shed ;—23. The priest says, (*memento*) “ Remember, O Lord, &c.,” because Christ prayed for his enemies ;—24. The words, “ also for us sinners,” (*nobis quoque peccatoribus*), refer to the promise made to the penitent thief ;—25. The Lord's prayer (*Pater noster,*) is said, indicating the committal of the virgin to the care of the disciple John ;—26. The priest breaks the host in two, pointing out the surrender of the Redeemer's soul to his Father ;—27. A portion of the host is put into the cup, significant of the descent of Christ's soul into hell ;—28. The priest smites his breast, repeating three times the words, (*Agnus Dei,*) “ Lamb of God, &c.,” representing the sorrowing disciples leaving the cross ;—29. The priest receives the host, shewing the entombment of Christ ;—30. The cup received, indicative of the embalment of the Saviour ;—31. The post-communion “ Thy body O Lord,” (*Corpus tuum,*) is repeated, declarative of the resurrection of Christ ;—32. The priest, turning to his assistants, says, (*Dominus vobiscum*), “ The Lord be with you,” referring to Christ's appearance to his disciples ;—33. The last prayers refer to Christ's continuance on earth during forty days ;—34. The mass (*Ite missa est*) is declared to be ended, shewing the Saviour's ascension ;—35. And finally, the priest pronounces the benediction, indicative of the descent of the Holy Spirit, according to the Redeemer's promise: Such is the sacrifice of the popish mass! Of the analogy between it, and the worship of the primitive church, as recorded in the New Testament, let our readers judge.

FINSBURY CHAPEL belongs to that large denomination of professing Christians known by the name of Independents. Their name, unhappily, but too well expresses what they are—a rope of sand, having no united system of discipline or worship; each congregation, in all respects, acting for itself. The constant alteration of such churches may consequently be easily accounted for. The system, if such it may be called, is replete with inconvenience, and discomfort, both to ministers and people; the minister being, but too often, either the lord or the slave of the congregation. Perhaps, formerly, from the persecution which the Puritans, endured, no regular and efficient plan of organization could have been effected; but now, when every disability is removed, we wonder that means are not taken to prevent the decline of this section of the christian church. We question whether more dissenting families are now to be found, than when the unrighteous act of uniformity passed in 1661. The congregations, moreover, not being central, but collected from great distances, exert no good influence upon the neighbourhood where the different chapels are situated. London dissenting ministers also, when specially wanted, are not easily to be found, in consequence of their residence not being in the locality of their chapel. In a few instances, possibly, the dissenting clergy may be over-paid; but generally speaking, it is the reverse,—independent ministers, like curates of the Church of England, receive an amount of income insufficient for their comfortable support, and no provision whatever is made for disease and old age. The creed of the Independents is essentially in accordance with the articles of the Church of England; but their worship, for the most part, is conducted without the use of a liturgy. Could an alliance be formed between the orthodox dissenters and the

evangelical clergy of the established Church, having one common and reformed liturgy, and psalm-book, with a certain and uniform provision for the ministers, we believe that religious worship throughout the country would soon be very different from what it now is.

THE UNITARIAN CHAPEL next claims our attention. This building has long been pronounced unorthodox in every respect, dissenting from the true faith of legitimate architecture. The columns are Ionic, and the entablature and pediment ill-proportioned. It was built for the use of a congregation which formerly used to meet in Parliament-court, Bishopsgate, once under the pastoral care of the Rev. Elhanan Winchester, a preacher of the doctrine of universal restoration. Unitarianism was subsequently embraced. Of the mischievous tendency of Unitarianism, the Churches of Geneva, France, Germany, England, and America, bear ample testimony. "It has always commenced," says the author of the *Modern Traveller*, vol. 23, "not with the people, but with the pastors, and by its natural history, marks it as the hybrid production of Deism, and nominal Christianity." Whether the more ancient history of the congregation meeting in Finsbury-place Chapel, answers to this description, let the facts decide. The Rev. Mr. Fox formerly professed himself to be the christian pastor of this flock; but what J. W. Fox, Esq., M. P., the presiding rabbi in this temple of reason, professes to be, we know not. We do, however, know that Voltaire, Rousseau, and Gibbon, mainly contributed to drive the doctrines of the reformed church from the pulpits of Geneva; but whether a similar influence has operated in Finsbury, we pretend not to determine. Still we think that it would be unjust to Unitarians, meanly as we estimate their system, to identify

them with the congregation of Finsbury-place. No men more thoroughly denounce the *spurious Rationalism* of this place than Unitarians themselves.

ALBION CHAPEL is in connexion with the established Church of Scotland, forming a section of the Presbyterian body. The term, Presbyterian, applied to an English congregation, not allied to the established or free Church of Scotland, is a complete *mismother*. A description of the interior of a dissenting chapel is simply to say that it has a *pulpit* and *pews*.

OFFICE FOR PAYNE'S ILLUSTRATED LONDON.

WE feel assured that the Proprietors of the ILLUSTRATED LONDON would withhold from us their thanks should we attempt any thing like a *puff* on their account. We content ourselves with saying, that should our friends from the country, visiting London, be desirous of inspecting other illustrated works than that of the LONDON, and will, when in the neighbourhood of St. Paul's, or Blackfriars-bridge, look out for the beautiful spire of St. Bride's Church, Fleet-street, they will find no great difficulty in meeting with No. 88, *our place of publication.*

LONDON IMPROVEMENTS.

THE TREASURY—*Whitehall.*

ADELPHI TERRACE—*Strand.*

LOWNDES SQUARE—*Pimlico.*

QUEEN'S ROAD PALACE GARDENS—
Bayswater.

HANOVER TERRACE—*Regent's Park.*

CORNWALL TERRACE—*Regent's Park.*

CUMBERLAND TERRACE—*Regent's Park.*

MACCLESFIELD BRIDGE—*Regent's Park.*

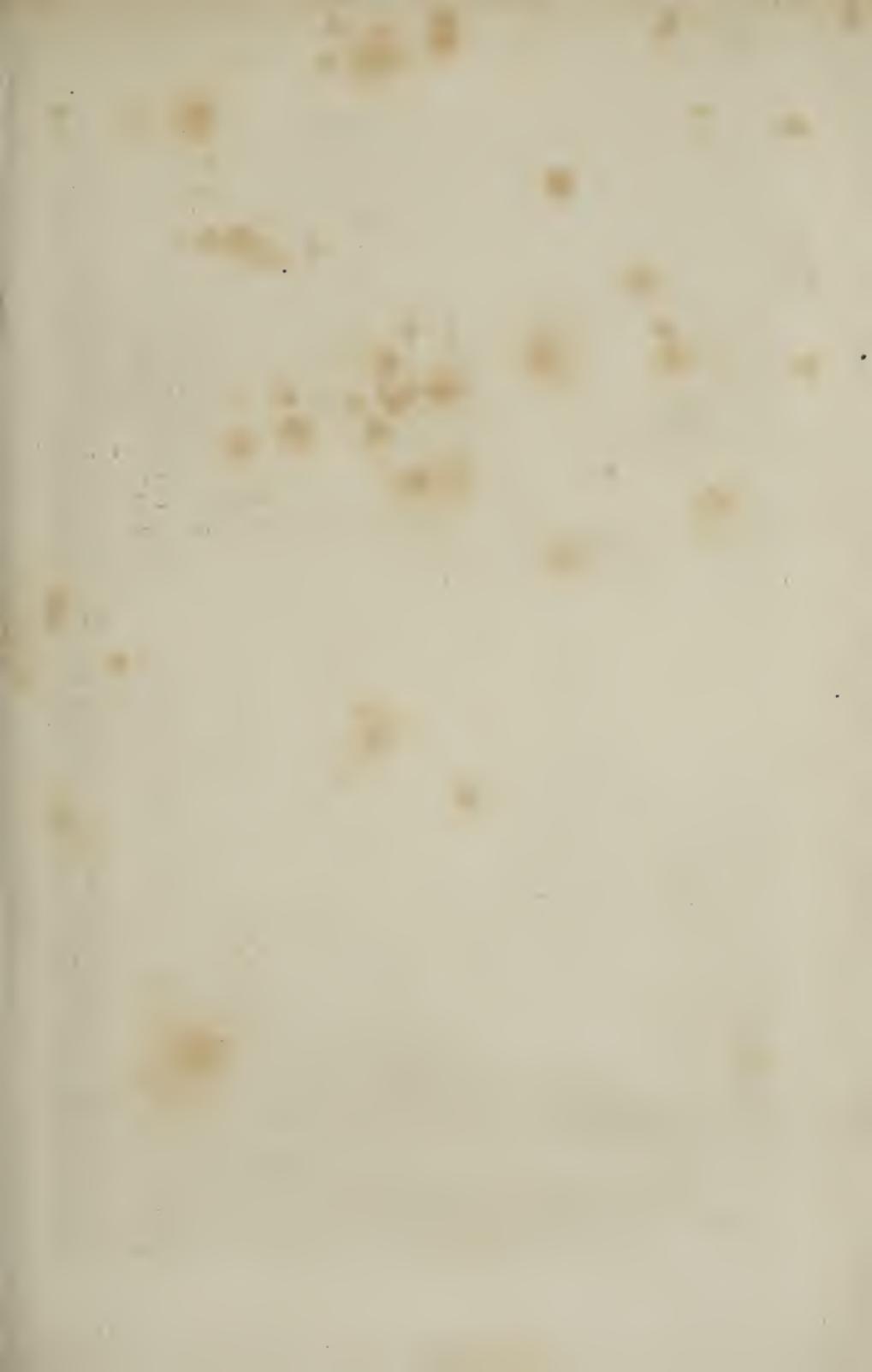
NEW COVENTRY STREET.

CRANBOURN STREET—*Leicester-square*

THE above are amongst the many modern improvements of London, and to which reference has already been frequently made.









TEMPLE GARDENS



WHITEHALL TERRACE





HANOVER TERRACE.
Regents Park



CORNWALL TERRACE,
Regents Park

The **TREASURY**, Whitehall, one of the principal government offices, has lately undergone a thorough repair, with considerable additions, but which, though executed from the designs of Mr. Barry, are, in our judgment, no improvement.

The **ADELPHI TERRACE**, on the banks of the Thames, and the adjoining streets as far as the Strand, occupy the ground on which Durham House formerly stood, the property of Queen Elizabeth, and given by her to the unfortunate Sir Walter Raleigh. The buildings on the *site* of the ancient palace being in a ruinous state, were purchased and removed by Messrs. Adam, and the immense pile of buildings called the Adelphi, substituted, forming one of the first of the more modern improvements in Westminster. The extreme depth of the foundations, the massy piers of brick-work, and the spacious vaults here employed, will ever excite the wonder of the ignorant, and the applause of the skilful. The front of the Adelphi presents an imposing appearance from the river, and cannot be viewed without conferring a due meed of praise upon the spirited projectors.

LOWNDES SQUARE, Pimlico, from the loftiness of the houses, and the singular style of its buildings, will probably not be thought inferior to the many new squares and streets which adorn this locality; whilst on the northern side of Hyde Park, Queen's Road Palace Gardens, Bayswater, and the numerous ranges of immense houses or palaces, in the neighbourhood of Tyburn, will no less attract and surprise the beholder.

With the beauties of the Regent's Park every person visiting London is acquainted; and amongst the numerous splendid terraces there to be found, those designated **HANOVER**, **CORNWALL**, **CUMBERLAND**, and others, will not fail to bespeak

the enterprising spirit and skill of those architects and builders by whom they were designed and executed.

MACCLESFIELD BRIDGE, which conducts out of the Regent's Park, deserves notice. It is picturesque and appropriate, if not over classical. The centre arch is appropriated to the canal and the towing path, while the two external arches are for the accommodation of foot-passengers beneath them, and as viaducts for the road above them.

The opening lately made from Piccadilly through NEW COVENTRY STEEET, Leicester Square, and CRANBOURN STREET, to Holborn, is a great improvement.

EXETER HALL, STRAND.

THE want of a building in London sufficiently spacious for holding general public meetings was long felt. Exeter Hall has supplied that *desideratum*. Politics here are inadmissible; the subjects introduced having reference, for the most part, to the moral and religious improvement of the *human family*.

The inscription over the front entrance, ΦΙΛΑΔΕΛΦΕΙΟΝ, (Philadelphion) may, by a free translation, be rendered,—*The place of meeting for those who “love as brethren.”* Although the Strand front is but contracted, yet the entrance has a very imposing appearance, the portico being formed by two pillars and two pilasters, of the Corinthian order. A double flight of steps leads to a wide landing, from which a second but single flight conducts to the hall, a room of large dimensions, fitted up with well arranged amphitheatrical seats. At the eastern end is an extensive platform or orchestra, with a splendid organ in the centre, and two small galleries on



MACCLESFIELD BRIDGE
Regent's Park



CENTRE OF CUMBERLAND TERRACE,
Regent's Park



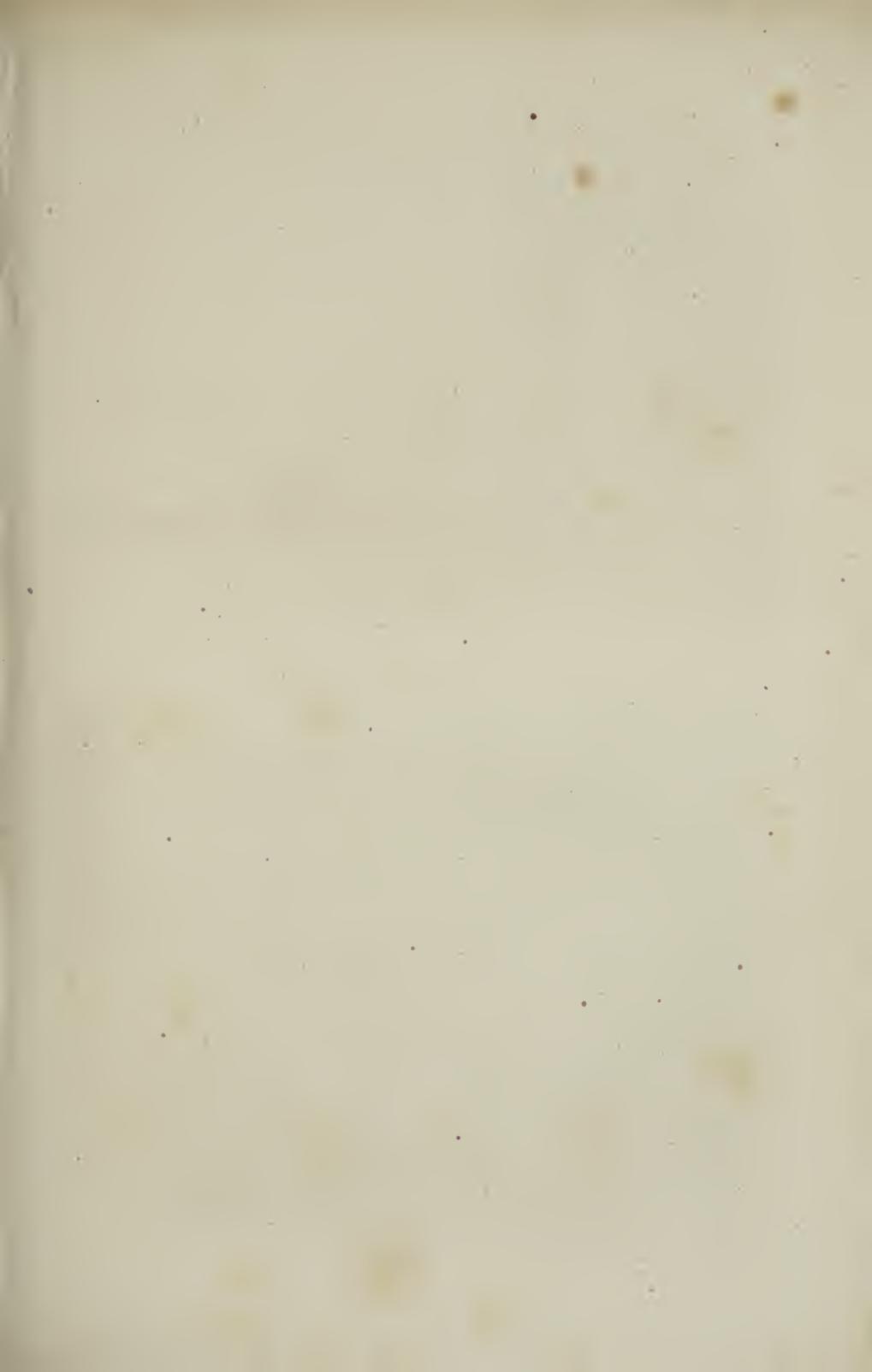


CRANBOURNE ST



NEW COVENTRY ST





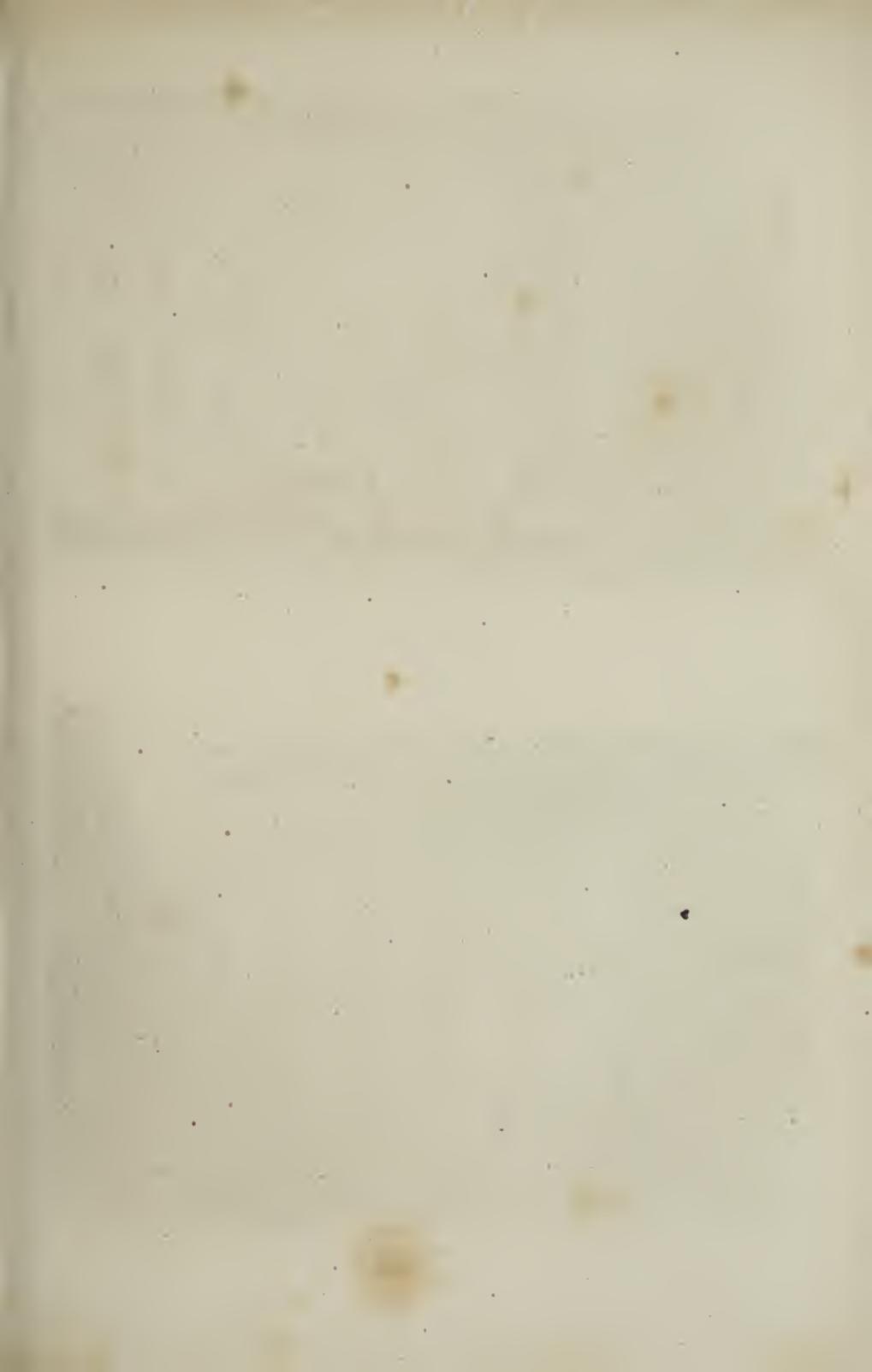


VINTNERS' HALL

See *Thomas's*, 1860.

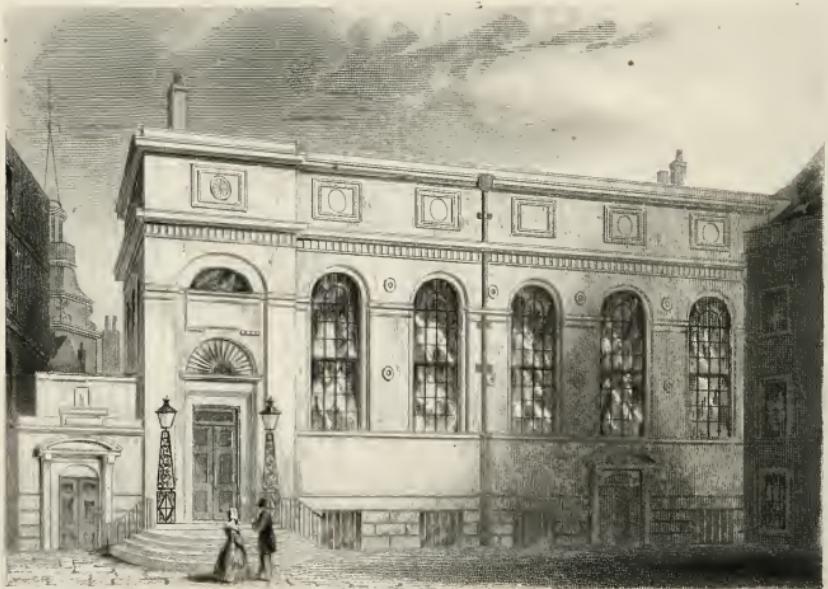


BUTCHERS' HALL

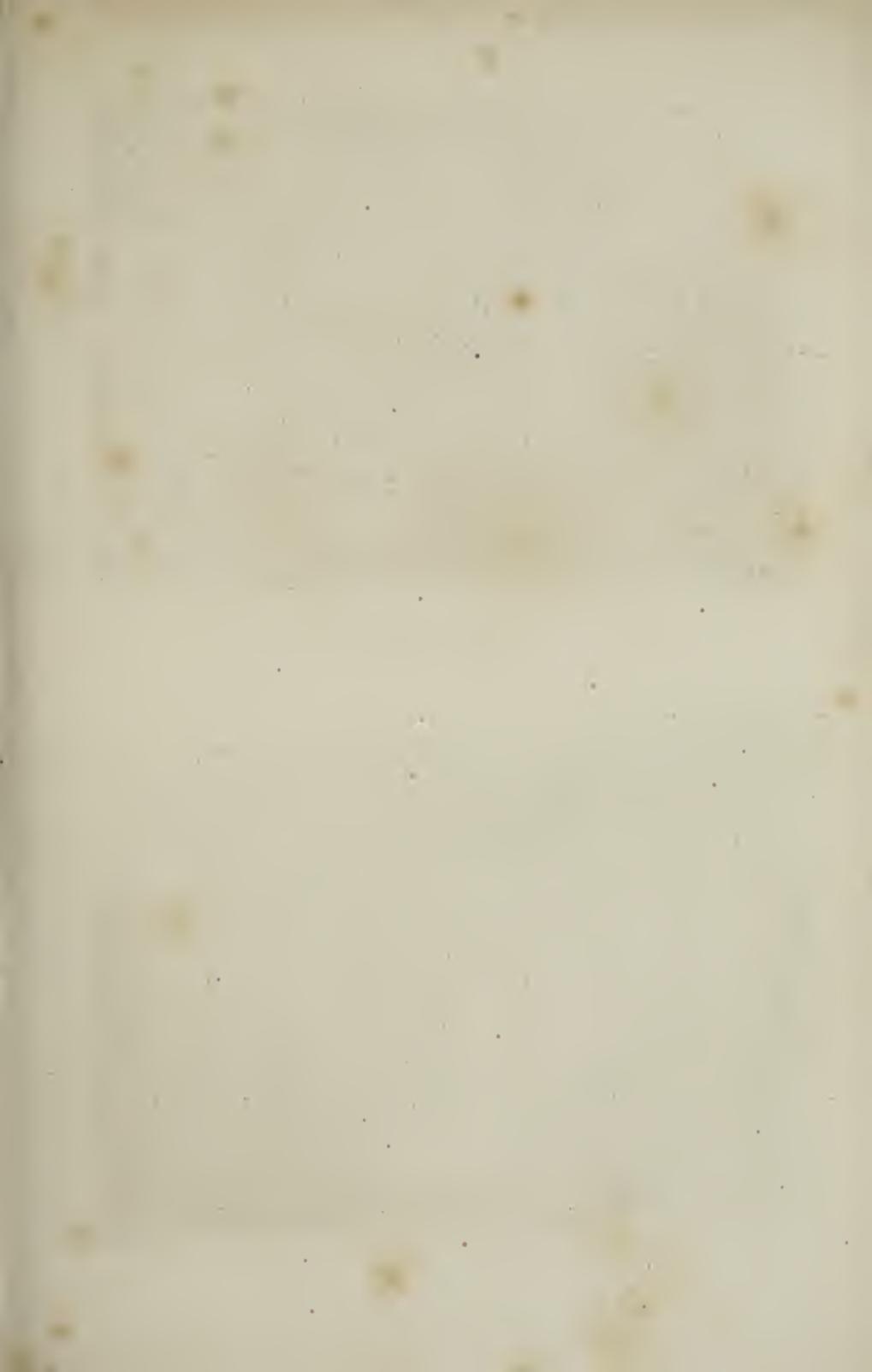




IRONMONGERS HALL



STATIONERS HALL





WALTERS' HALL,

Illustrated London



DRAPERS' HALL

Illustrated London



THE GUILDFHALL



either side; while at the western end, is a convenient gallery running the whole width of the building. The hall is, moreover, well lighted and ventilated, having, by day or night, every convenience for concerts or public meetings. On the ground floor is another hall of smaller size, together with a number of convenient rooms, used for business purposes.

THE CITY HALLS.

GUILDHALL—*King Street.*

APOTHECARIES' HALL—*Blackfriars.*

DRAPERS' HALL—*Throgmorton-street.*

IRONMONGERS' HALL—*Fenchurch-st.*

SALTERS' HALL—*St. Swithin's Lane.*

SKINNERS' HALL—*Dowgate Hill*

VINTNERS' HALL—*Upper Thames-st.*

THE GUILDHALL, Cheapside, is the principal place for transacting city-business. The courts of aldermen, and the common council are held here; and where likewise the mayor sheriffs, and the representatives of the city in parliament, are elected. The hall, or chief room, in the building, is one hundred and fifty-three feet long, forty-eight feet wide, and fifty-five feet high. The figures of Gog and Magog, formerly much more talked of than at present, still hold their places in Guildhall.

Of the structure itself little more need be said, than, that only a few years ago it received a new Gothic front, over the centre of which are the city arms. The citizens possess a tolerable library, considered particularly valuable for works having a reference to the history, immunities, &c., of London. The monuments of Chatham, Pitt, Nelson, and Beckford, likewise deserve notice. The chamberlain's office is a very fine room, containing a collection of corporation votes, given to our modern heroes, splendidly illuminated on vellum, and framed and glazed. The council chamber contains a number of paint-

ings, presented by Alderman Boydell, a statue of George III., by Chantry, and a portrait of her present Majesty, painted by Hayter. The courts of law form the eastern wing of Guildhall, the justice hall, for hearing cases of misdemeanours, &c., the western. A succinct account of the Corporation of London will be found in our article on the Mansion House, and in the general history.

Of the CITY COMPANIES it will suffice to say that each of them has a private history of its own; and many of them have halls noted either for splendour, antiquity, paintings, or curiosities, which it would be impossible to particularize. The companies are ninety-one in number, twelve of which claim priority. As corporate bodies they have *armorial bearings*, some having appropriate mottoes, others are mere *puns*. The motto of the Joiners' Company, for example, is "*Join truth with truth*;" that of the Blacksmiths,—"*By hammer and hand all arts do stand*;" and that of the learned Glaziers,—"*Da nobis lucem Domine*,"—in English, "*Give us light, O Lord*." As *brotherhoods*, the City Companies are useful and praiseworthy; the heart of many a decayed brother, having been cheered by their means.

THEATRES OF LONDON.

THE QUEEN'S THEATRE, OR ITALIAN OPERA HOUSE—*Haymarket*.

DRURY LANE THEATRE.

COVENT GARDEN THEATRE, OR NEW OPERA HOUSE.

THEATRE ROYAL—*Haymarket*.

THE ADELPHI THEATRE—*Strand*.

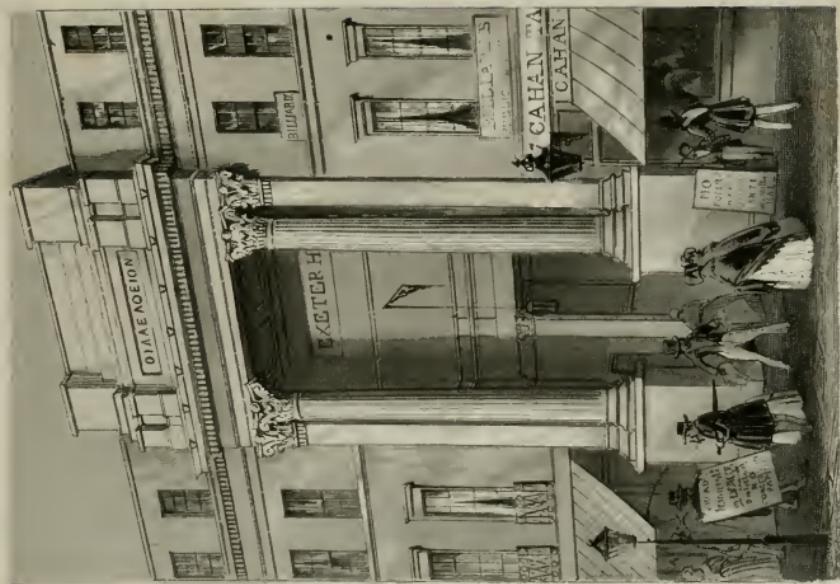
ENGLISH OPERA HOUSE.—*Wellington Street, Strand*.

THE PRINCE'S THEATRE—*St. James's Street*.

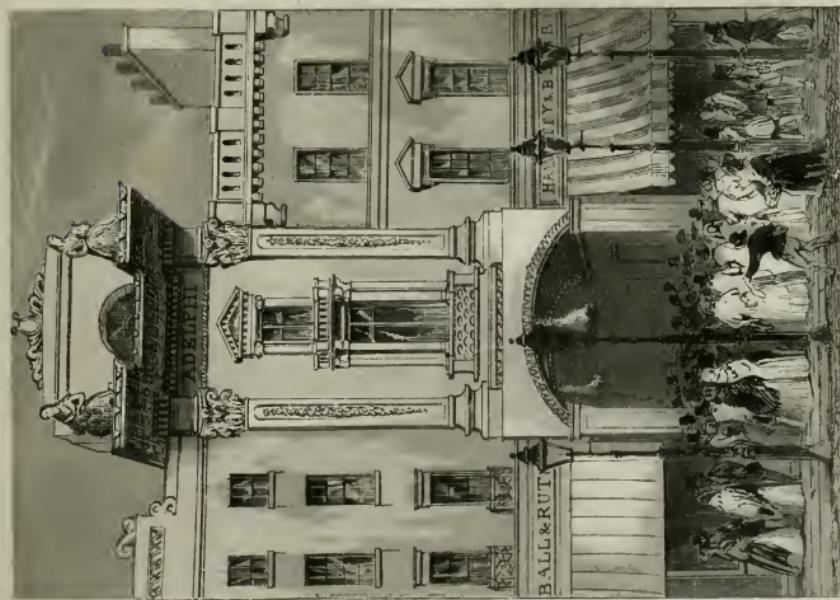
THE PRINCESS'S THEATRE—*Oxford Street*.

A history of the drama of a country, would be almost equivalent to the history of civilized society in that country. The

EXETER HALL



ADRIENNE THEATRE



dramatic art may have varied in different parts of the world, yet its elements every where are essentially the same. Amongst the islanders of the South Seas, a rude kind of drama is known to exist, and in India a rich dramatic literature may be traced for the last two thousand years. It is the opinion of some, that dramatic spectacles are necessary in all populous cities. Whether this be true in all instances, may, perhaps, be doubtful. Certain it is, that the drama seems every where to have prevailed, and the practices of the stage to have emigrated from one country to another, however diversified from a variety of causes.

Hence, though the modern English drama may have had its origin in those allegorical and spiritual pieces called *moralities* and *mysteries*, introduced, at first, by the clergy, for the purposes of instruction and entertainment; yet that ultimately it became corrected and improved, according to those rules of art which were so well accredited by other nations, ancient and modern.

Our original religious dramas were, doubtless, of French extraction; the actors, in the more incipient stages, being the priests, and the churches serving the place of theatres. Many of these miracle-plays, and plays of character, are still extant; their use having continued to a very late period. Of the latter kind, there is one entitled “The Life and Repentance of Mary Magdalen,” printed in 1567; and another, of about the same date, on the history of Jacob and Esau, but written with the humour of a comedy. Tragedy, arranged in a more artificial form, appears, about the same period, to have been gradually introduced. One of the first tragedies was called “Ferrex and Porrex;” but which, though cast into five acts or parts, in the usual way of our

more modern productions was, notwithstanding, written in defiance of those antique *unities* acknowledged by other European nations.

The mystery plays having been in a measure suppressed, and driven from the churches, plays of history, character, or sentiment, supplied their place, performed, at first, during daylight on open stages or scaffolds, the actors and the audience being out of doors. Queen Elizabeth was fond of theatrical representations, and much encouraged the professors of the histrionic art, having one company under her immediate patronage. Under such auspices, we need scarcely wonder that dramatic writers and performers should have greatly increased. The transition of the English drama was remarkable, rising at once from almost the lowest state of buffoonery, to the highest excellence the English stage has ever attained. Shakespeare, Jonson, Marlow, Massinger, Beaumont and Fletcher, being either cotemporaries, or followers, in quick succession.

Still writings of this remarkable period cannot be tested by the conventional rules of art. Shakespeare and his compeers were either ignorant of those rules, which had been established; or knowing them, did not choose to comply with them; but soared into those high regions of romance and poetry, whither later writers have vainly sought to reach. It is remarkable, that while Shakespeare, in England, regardless of all dramatic rules, should have *warbled* in the wildest strains, with an inspiration of the highest poetical elevation; his immediate successors, in France, Corneille, Racine, and Crebillon, should have produced dramas of the most artificial and polished description, strictly conforming also to the rules of art.

It is also worthy of remark, that though the early French

drama was, in an eminent degree, moral, that of the English was the very reverse. The works of Shakespeare, one of the least immoral of our early dramatic writers, contain such a mixture of sublime, didactic, and moral poetry, mixed with so much mere nonsense, ribaldry, and obscenity, that not a single play of that great writer, without considerable abridgment, can be read by a father to a family of daughters. Beaumont and Fletcher more nearly resemble Shakespeare than any others of our romantic dramatists, partaking largely of that licentiousness found in their predecessor; but without making more than a distant approach to his excellencies. The *mannerism* of the learned Ben Jonson, makes him stand one by himself.

Our drama experienced no particular change until the breaking out of the civil war, when the puritans, having long complained of the demoralizing tendency of the stage, *players* and *play-goers* were alike made chargeable with a penal offence. The laws, under the Protectorate, might have been well intended; but the total suppression of a national amusement, was more the effect of zeal than prudence.

With the return of Charles II., the national drama was restored with increased licentiousness. In conformity with the practices of the continent, women now, for the first time, sustained female characters on the stage, such parts having previously been filled by boys. The plays, especially the comedies, of this period, cannot now be performed, without great alteration and abridgment. The dramatic writings of Dryden, Shadwell, Wycherley, Congreve, Farquhar, and even those of a later date, correspond to that indecency of expression, and licentiousness of manners with which the second Charles had infected his court and the country. This is observable not merely in single speeches, but in the whole plot; the fashion-

able rake, or debauchée, the hero of the piece, introducing a moral scepticism, which ridicules marriage, and every restraint upon vice.

At the beginning of the eighteenth century, the state of our drama remained essentially the same. The dramatic productions of Fielding, possessing at once the character of his novels were humorous and licentious ; and which led the government to attempt some restraint upon the number of theatres, and upon plays also, by subjecting them to the lord chamberlain's licence. This may have produced some good ; but even the more modern comedies cannot be held up as models of purity. Murphy's comedy of "The Way to keep him," and Sheridan's play of "The School for Scandal," are alike objectionable, although couched in decent language, for their immoral tendency.

English tragedies, generally speaking, are far less objectionable than our comedies. The tragedies of Lee, Otway, Southern, Rowe, Addison, Young, Johnson, and others, are rather frigid and spiritless, than immoral.

About the period of which we are treating, may be dated the introduction of the Italian Opera. Against this inroad upon the legitimate English drama, Steele and Addison, the conservators of public manners, made a powerful, though unsuccessful effort to bring it into contempt by ridicule. In the *Tatler*, of April 19th, 1709, the writer says,—“ Letters from the Haymarket inform us, that on Saturday night last, the opera of Pyrrhus and Demetruis was performed with great applause. This intelligence is not very acceptable to us friends of the theatre; for the stage being *an entertainment of the reason*, and *all our faculties*, this way of being pleased with the suspense of them for three hours together, and being given

up to the shallow satisfaction of the eyes and ears only, *seems to arise from the degeneracy of our understanding*, rather than an improvement of our diversions." Many papers in the Spectator might be quoted, reiterating the same sentiments. Gay's " Beggar's Opera," though, in all respects, a most objectionable production, was likewise levelled at the Italian Opera ; but failing to produce that effect, it was the means of introducing a new species of entertainment, since called the English Opera. What would these writers say, could they witness the *Jenny Lind mania* of the present day, occasioned by the appearance of a *Swedish nightingale*?

It has often been affirmed that the English are not a theatrical people. Of this we presume not to judge ; but one thing is certain, that some kind of *nationality* must exist in reference to such matters. Our neighbours, the French, naturally a lively people, are, it is well known, constant attendants at the theatre, listening with deep attention to the long and prosy speeches of their favourite authors. But they do this, as it seems to us, not for the purpose of amusement or excitement, but from a desire, however, unconscious of the fact themselves, of being *sobered down* for the night. On the contrary, the graver English, deeply engaged during the whole day in business, desire a little excitement or amusement in the evening ; and whether that be obtained of Kean or Liston ; of Jim Crow or Jenny Lind ; of Madame Vestris or Monsr. Julien ; no great matter. Still, fashion and the *aristocracy* have, no doubt, an important influence upon public taste, the *cits* being willing to follow those of the *west-end* ; or not to say it profanely,—*one fool making many* !

Towards the close of the year 1741, the celebrated Garrick made his first appearance at Goodman's Fields, a minor theatre

of London. The metropolitan stage, at this period, was indifferent supplied with actors, and the style of acting employed, artificial and declamatory. The effect of a return to a natural mode of recitation, with that facility of expression which Garrick possessed in an eminent degree, insured the most complete success. The part of Richard III. gave him ample scope for the development of his extraordinary powers. The next year we find him at Drury Lane. He has the reputation of having reformed many abuses in the conduct and licence of the drama. His success continued long and uninterrupted.

An interval of only about seven years elapsed between the retirement of Garrick, and the appearance of J. P. Kemble, in 1783. He was a man of learning, and of elegant manners and accomplishments. His natural capabilities were, doubtless, extraordinary, and these he had matured by intense application. The drama owes much to him in various and considerable improvements. Several old plays he altered and improved. He exhibited, moreover, a refined and accurate taste, in the rectification of scenic decoration, and the adoption of appropriate costume. The former part of his career was encouraging; but the larger theatres in London were on the *wane* long before the retirement of Kemble from the stage. The characters in which he excelled, and his general style of acting, were very different from those of Garrick.

Just before the retirement of Kemble from Covent Garden, another *star* had arisen at the rival house of Drury Lane,—the talented, but unhappy Edmund Kean. He made his *debut* in January 1814, in the character of Shylock, and with triumphant success. “The house,” observes a cotemporary writer, “was empty of nearly all but critics, and those who

came in with oranges or orders. His voice was harsh, his style new, his action abrupt and angular ; but there was the decision, the inspiration of genius, in the look, the tone, the bearing ; the hard unbending Jew was before us ! ” The noblest conceptions of Shakespeare, Richard III., Hamlet and Othello, were faithfully, even painfully, *personated* by Kean. But this sudden success was the actor’s ruin. His vast powers, at the expiration of about ten years, failed him ; so that when he attempted the new character of Henry V. he was unequal to the task ; and those who once adored him, now viewed him with pity and contempt.

Of the present state of our national drama little need be said, since it must be apparent to every one, on looking only into a newspaper, that Drury Lane and Covent Garden Theatres are completely prostrate. Whether this has arisen from any disinclination in the public mind to patronise our legitimate drama ;—or whether the attractions of operatic productions, especially those of the Italian Opera, have superseded the necessity of scenic performances of tragedy or comedy ;—whether the immense size of the *patent* houses have deterred persons from entering them, knowing that nothing could be distinctly seen, or well heard ;—whether the lighter and shorter pieces represented at the minor theatres have proved more attractive ;—whether the reading of novels and romances has produced the required excitement ;—whether any moral or religious feeling has operated to the prejudice of the theatres ;—whether the change has arisen from a dearth of histrionic talents or authors ;—whether, we repeat, any, or all of these causes, have been productive of the change, may perhaps be difficult to determine. The declension is evident.

From the beginning of the present century, this fact has

been most apparent. At Covent Garden, during twelve years, from 1809 to 1821, the whole receipts of the house were unequal to the current expenses. But in the next ten years the accounts were still more deplorable, showing an average loss of £20,000 per annum. It is, moreover, a remarkable fact, that Drury Lane Theatre is precisely in a similar state. In this deplorable state of things, we can feel no surprise that Melpomene and Thalia, the *genii* of tragedy and comedy, should have forsaken their splendid temples of Drury-lane and Bow-street, and sought an asylum in the humbler *domiciles* of Sadler's Wells and Marylebone. For farther particulars, see a tract just published, (Sept. 1847), entitled, "The drama as it is."

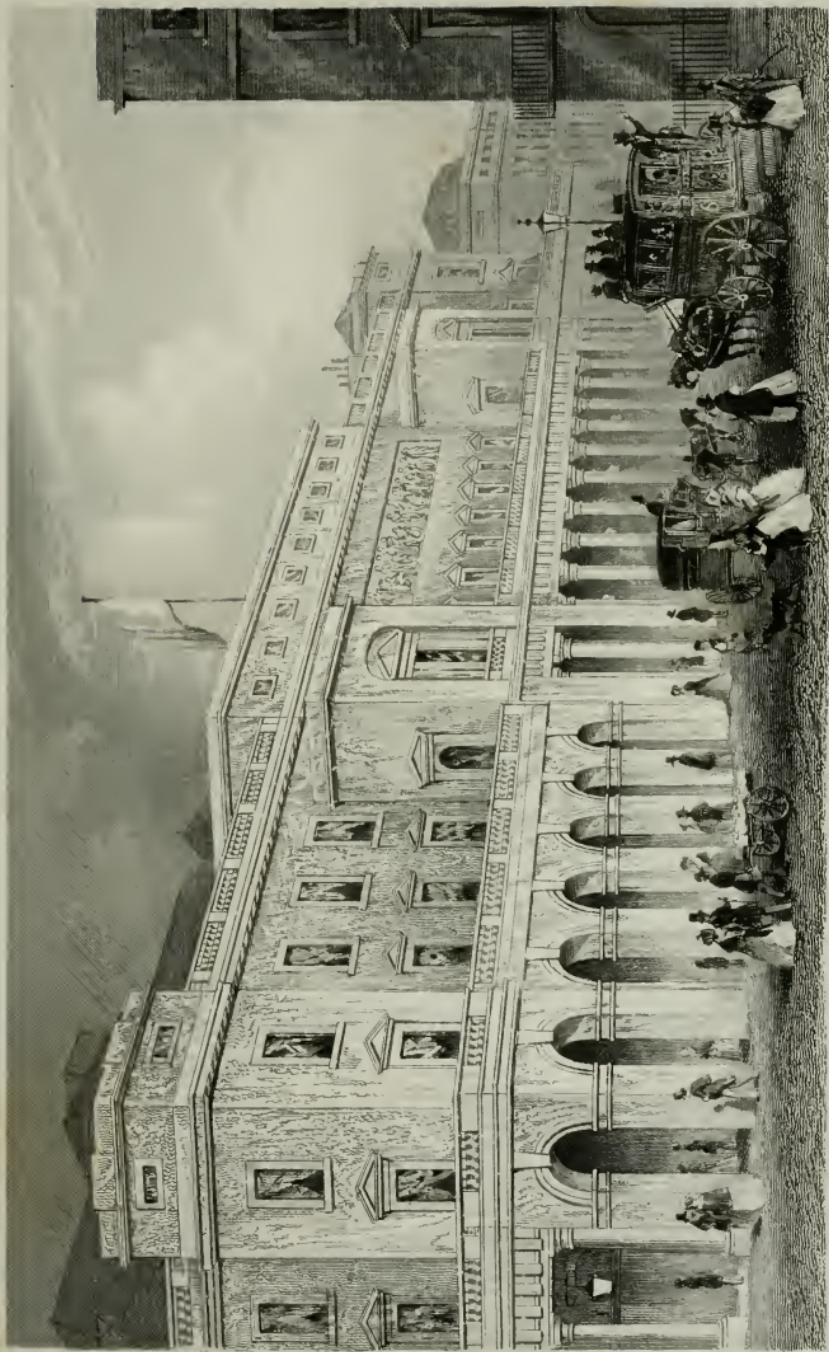
The QUEEN'S THEATRE, OR ITALIAN OPERA HOUSE, Haymarket, is appropriated to the performance of Italian operas, followed by a ballet. From the liberal patronage of our nobility and gentry, it is no wonder that the greatest talent in music and dancing should be procured. The present building was re-modelled in 1820, from designs by Messrs. Nash and Repton. The interior, by Novosielski, is most splendid, having five tiers of boxes. The pit is very spacious, the part next the orchestra being fitted up as stalls. Persons visiting the pit are required to appear *in full dress*. The performances are only three times a week.

DRURY LANE THEATRE has been several times re-built. The present edifice was erected in 1812, from designs of Mr. Wyatt. The interior, though large, is well constructed, and will accommodate 2,700 persons. A spacious saloon communicates with the box lobbies, forming a promenade.

COVENT GARDEN THEATRE was opened in 1809, having been re-built under the superintendence of Sir R. Smirke.

A. D. Payne.

THE ITALIAN SCENE.





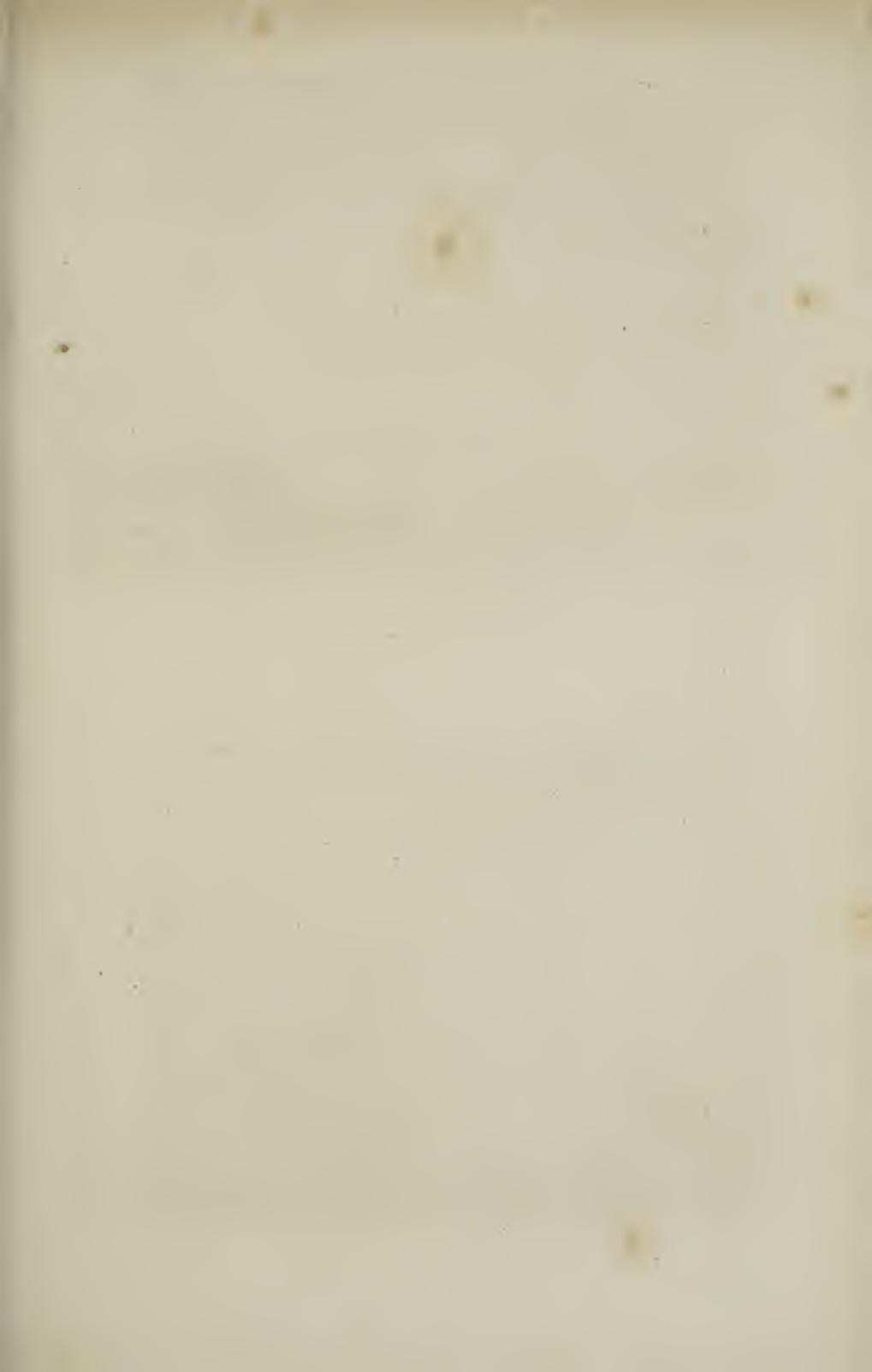


DRURY LANE THEATRE



DRURY LANE THEATRE







HAYMARKET THEATRE



COVENT GARDEN THEATRE

The portico of this magnificent structure, consisting of four fluted columns, supporting a pediment, is taken from the temple of Minerva, at Athens. On each side of the portico are emblematical representations, in reliefo, of the ancient and modern drama. This national dramatic building, within the walls of which the powerful and thrilling intonations of Kemble and Siddons were once to be heard, is now used for the performance of operas.

The THEATRE, HAYMARKET, was re-built from a design of Mr. Nash, and may be regarded as a model for a theatre. From its size and construction, every line pronounced may, from any part of the interior, be distinctly heard.

Of the other theatres, in different parts of the town, it will perhaps be thought sufficient to say, that could the legitimate drama be introduced into them instead of the burlettas, farces and pantomimes, which now take place, a change, for the better, in public taste, might possibly be hoped for.

LITERARY INSTITUTIONS.

UNIVERSITY COLLEGE—*Gower-street.*

ROYAL COLLEGE OF SURGEONS—

Lincoln's Inn Fields.

HIGHBURY COLLEGE—*Islington.*

LONDON INSTITUTION—*Finsbury Circus.*

CROSBY HALL—*Bishopsgate-street.*

POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTION—*Regent-street.*

LONDON, strictly speaking, has never been the seat of the muses, that honour having been conceded to Oxford and Cambridge, but by what prescriptive right we know not. Persons living in the metropolis having sons to be educated, and not perhaps greatly in love with the discipline of the two seats of learning just referred to; or being dissenters from the established church are excluded, not very justly, by the very statutes of the universities from partaking of that education

which was once free to all; have been obliged to look to a more private education, or to the Scottish universities, or to the foreign Protestant colleges.

Young men also, desirous of being possessed of sound learning for the proper discharge of the holy ministry, had a right to expect assistance from the national institutions of their country; but to their disappointment, they find that when application is made to the *almæ matres*, (loving mothers), dwelling on the banks of the *Isis*, and the *Cam*, the response for the last two hundred years has been,—“ It is not meet to take the children’s bread and to cast it to dogs.” And then the young men of England, having received a chance-medley clerical education, are to be reproached for their want of learning, or preaching in a style of *cant*. We are not the advocates of any sect; but as far as we know, whatever the dissenting clergy may be in other respects, they are, in reading, in speaking, and in biblical knowledge, fully equal to the clergy of the established church.

The existence of the facts just stated, led to the establishment, in 1825, of University College, called before its incorporation with King’s College, the London University. Its objects are—(1.) To enable parents to educate their boys under their own immediate inspection ;—(2.) To afford to young men studying for the ministry, the opportunity of acquiring a sound university education; and (3.) farther, the establishment of systematic courses of education for professional pursuits;—law, medicine, and civil engineering.

The necessary funds for the erection of a building suitable for these purposes, were raised by subscriptions for £100 shares, and a few donations of £50. The amount subscribed was £161,000; and the donations £2350. His late Royal Highness



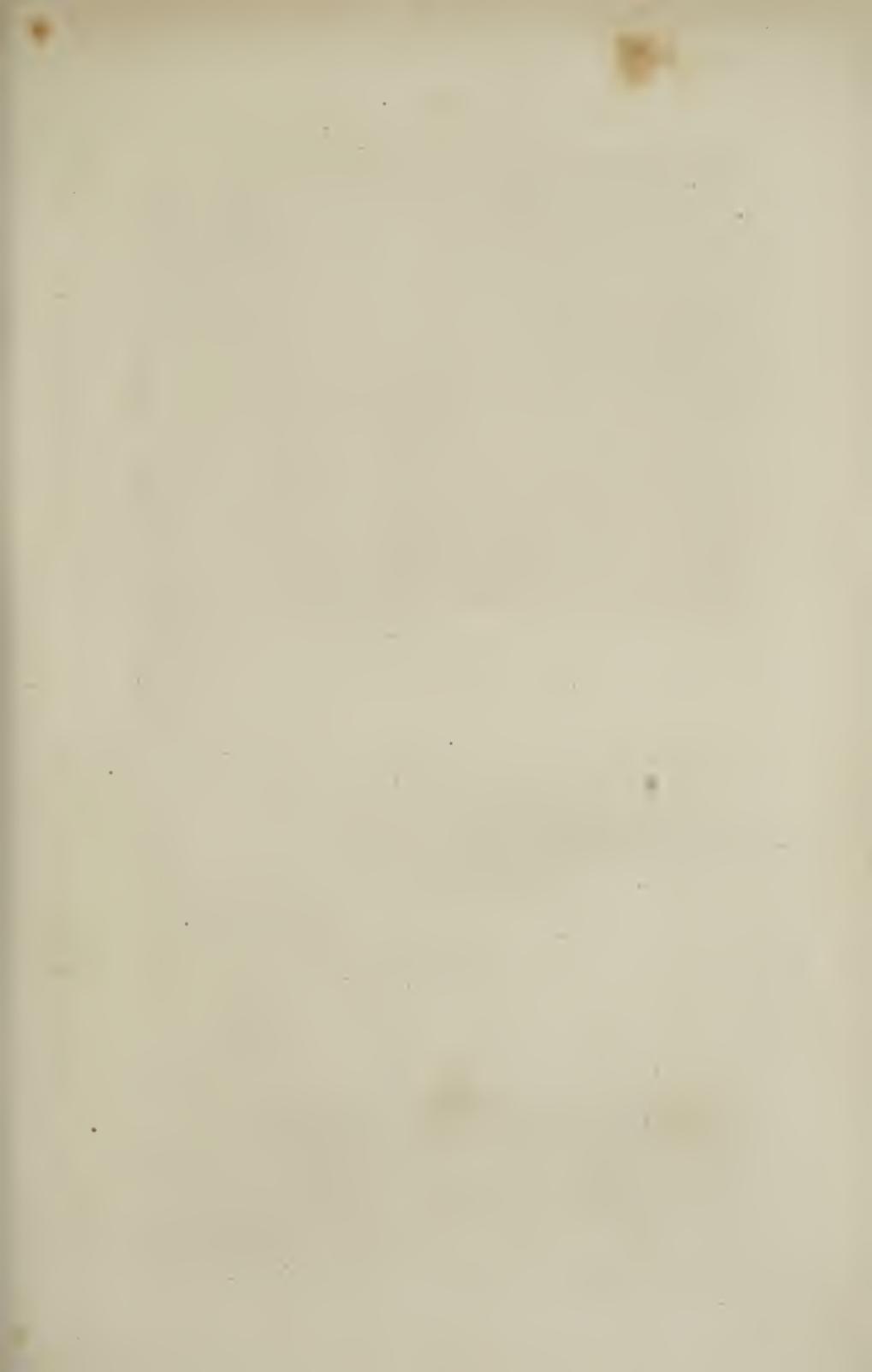
THE LONDON UNIVERSITY

the Duke of Sussex, became the patron of the University; and which, towards the end of 1828, was in full operation.

In 1830, application was made to the crown for a charter of incorporation; and which, at first, appeared likely to have been obtained without opposition. But not so;—the fable of the dog in the manger, has unhappily been but too often acted in real life. Opposition was preparing; and the first in the battle-field were (is it credible?) the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, followed soon after by the professors of the different medical schools in London, and the Royal College of Surgeons. But at length, in 1835, the government most wisely proposed to incorporate, by charter, as a university in London, a body of gentlemen of eminence in learning and science, who should have the power of examining candidates, and of conferring degrees in *Arts*, *Medicine*, and *Laws*, on students of certain colleges in London, and others existing throughout the country, to be afterwards recognised, as well as the various schools of professional education. The University thus defined, was to be maintained by an annual grant of money by Parliament; and the degrees conferred without reference to denominational differences. The London University, henceforth to be designated University College, was to have a charter as a college, and to be recognised as one of the schools entitled to send up students for examination. This arrangement, highly creditable to a liberal ministry, was accepted; and University College saved from ruin. For such had been the opposition made to it, and so many the difficulties which had arisen, that but for this support of the government, the newly-raised college would have been swamped. It is a known fact that some of the early professors received no emolument for their labours during several years.

Young men designed for the ministry amongst the dissenters, and coming to London for that purpose, have been usually located in one of the academies, or colleges, in the neighbourhood of town, at each of which there are from ten to forty students. These formerly received the whole of their education, during about four years, from tutors attached to such institutions; but now they are encouraged, or obliged, to become members of University College; where having attended the philological and mathematical classes, afterwards go through a course of lectures, in the academy to which they belong, on dogmatical and moral theology. The students enjoy the farther advantage of having their compositions revised by their own divinity professor; with opportunities of preaching occasionally in some of the dissenting chapels. The entire course of study now requires from five to six years. This new arrangement, we need scarcely add, will prove highly beneficial to those who are to become the future pastors of congregational churches. We have gone into this digression as an introduction to the pictorial view of HIGH-BURY COLLEGE, one of the largest establishments for the education of dissenting clergymen in or near London.

The average number of students at University College, during seven years, terminating with the end of the session of 1842, had been as follows;—in Arts and Law, one hundred and forty-five; and in Medicine four hundred and thirty. The ordinary annual expenses of the establishment, exclusive of professors and teachers, amount to £3,500. The faculty of Arts and Laws consists of the professors of Latin, Greek, English, French, Italian, Hebrew, Arabic, Persian, and Hindostani; Sancrit, Chinese, Comparative Grammar, History, Political Economy, Philosophy of the Mind and Logic; Jurisprudence, English Law, Mathematics, Natural Philo-





ROYAL COLLEGE OF SURGEONS



APOTHECARIES HALL

sophy and Astronomy; Architecture, Civil Engineering, Chemistry, Zoology, Botany, and Geology. The faculty of Medicine consists of the professors of Anatomy and Physiology; Anatomy and Practical Anatomy; Pathological Anatomy, Comparative Anatomy, Medicine, Clinical Medicine, Surgery, Clinical Surgery, Midwifery, Materia Medica, Chemistry, Botany, and Medical Jurisprudence.

University College is in Gower-street, St. Pancras, having been built from the design of the late William Wilkins, Esq., and has rather an imposing appearance. The lecture-rooms and theatres are spacious and commodious; the libraries contain a choice selection of books, but kept distinct; the museums, laboratory, and rooms for business, also are well arranged. The expenses of the building, furniture, museums, and libraries, amounted to about £150,000. The expense of rearing a large and commodious hospital, on the opposite side of the street, is not included in the above estimate.

This college being a branch of the UNIVERSITY OF LONDON, its students are entitled to become candidates for a degree. The degrees granted by the University, are those of B. A., M. A., B. L., L. L. D., B. M., and M. D.

The ROYAL COLLEGE OF SURGEONS is on the south side of Lincoln's Inn Fields. The building is neat, with a portico in front, of the Ionic order. The surgeons were originally one company with the barbers; but in 1800 they received a distinct corporation by royal charter. To this college is intrusted the care of examining persons professing to have qualified for the practice of surgery. A certificate from Surgeons' Hall being indispensable for holding a professional appointment under government. A course of twenty-four lectures is delivered annually in the theatre, illustrative of some of

the preparations belonging to the college. The splendid museum here deposited, was begun by the celebrated John Hunter, at whose decease it was purchased by government; having since been increased by many valuable and important addititions. A more chaste and complete cabinet of anatomical preparations is hardly to be found in Europe. Persons desirous of viewing the museum, may readily obtain an order for that purpose from a member.

CROSBY HOUSE, or HALL, Bishopsgate-street, is of remote antiquity, having been built, in 1470, for Sir John Crosby, then sheriff of London. It afterwards became the residence of the Duke of Gloucester, the notorious Richard III. Shakespeare has immortalized this spot, by introducing it into one of his plays. It remained for many years in the possession of the crown; but subsequently passed into private hands. Having recently been put into a state of repair, it is now employed for the delivery of lectures, and other literary or commercial purposes.

The **POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTION,** Regent-street. Few places in the metropolis better deserve public patronage than this, as instruction and amusement are here happily combined. The chemical lectures, the microscopic experiments, the dissolving views, &c., well merit the attention of every visitor to London. This institution is open in the morning from half-past ten to five; and in the evening, from seven to ten.

The **LONDON INSTITUTION,** Finsbury Circus, was erected for the reception of an extensive and valuable library of ancient and modern books; for reading and lecture-rooms; and for a laboratory. Its affairs are managed by a committee of proprietors.



CROSBY HALL.
Brixton Road Street







POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTION.



PRINCESS'S THEATRE.





LONDON INSTITUTION. FINSBURY CIRCUS



ALBION CHAPEL. LONDON WALL







INTERIOR OF THE HOUSE OF LORDS.

THE HOUSES OF PARLIAMENT, COURTS OF LAW, & INNS OF COURTS.

WESTMINSTER HALL—*Palace-yard.*

THE INTERIOR OF THE HOUSE OF LORDS.

NEW HALL AND LIBRARY—*Lincoln's Inn.*

THE TEMPLE LIBRARY.

MIDDLE TEMPLE HALL.

FURNIVAL'S INN—*Holborn.*

GRAY'S INN HALL—*Holborn.*

LEGISLATION in every country is most important, being the very bulwark by which an entire population are banded together. It is more particularly so, under a free government, where the sovereign forms but one branch of the legislature; the nobles and the commons, as in Great Britain, forming the other. The union of these branches is essential, before any enactment can become law.

The constitution of the United Kingdom has often, and deservedly, been the subject of panegyric, especially since the reforms which, at a comparatively recent period, have taken place in the House of Commons. That the English constitution is faultless, it would be folly to assert; but still, as a whole, we believe, that nothing human has fewer defects.

The laws of England, speaking generally, are characterized both in themselves and their administration for being pre-eminently *just*. Their principal defect arising from the slowness of their progress, and the great expense which they involve. Where the matter at issue is but small, it will be found expedient, because advantageous, to suffer a partial wrong, rather than run the risk of a protracted and expensive litigation. The law of the Gospel, even with a literal interpretation, will, in most cases, be found the wiser course;—“*If any man will sue thee at the law, and take away thy coat, let him have thy cloak also.*”

WESTMINSTER HALL claims our attention on more accounts than one. It is the grand seat of law. Trials by impeachment are held here. Charles I. received sentence of death in this hall. Here likewise the memorable trial of Warren Hastings took place, which lasted for seven years. The conviviality of coronation festivals also have been often witnessed in this hall. The courts of justice are on the western side of the hall, and may be entered from it. The first, beginning from the great northern entrance, is the Court of Queen's Bench, and its bail court; then the Court of Common Pleas; the third is the Court of Exchequer, now being also a Court of Common Pleas; and the fourth the Equity Court, or Court of Chancery. The courts of the Vice Chancellors are likewise here. Intelligent visitors, especially foreigners, cannot fail to admire the order and equity of our judicial proceedings.

Westminster Hall is one immense room, being three hundred and eighty feet long, seventy-two broad, and about one hundred feet high. It is, with the exception of the theatre at Oxford, the largest room, unsupported by columns, in Europe. The style is the old Gothic, and originally built in 1098 by William Rufus,

Immediately behind Westminster Hall stood St. Stephen's Chapel, used as the place of meeting of the Commons, with another building contiguous, used by the Lords. But on the night of the 16th of October, 1834, the two Houses of Parliament were almost entirely destroyed by fire. Shortly after, it having been decided that a suitable structure should be reared to accommodate both the Peers and Commoners, a number of designs from different architects were prepared and exhibited; when the Lord Commissioners selected that design, which is now, after many modifications, rapidly advancing



NEW HALL & LIBRARY, LINCOLN'S INN



towards its completion. It is a building of vast extent, connecting in one comprehensive whole the Houses of Parliament, the Courts of Law, and Westminster Hall. The new buildings will cover nearly six acres of land. The eastern or river front is eight hundred and seventy feet in length; the western front four hundred and ten feet; the south front three hundred and forty; and the north end, including Westminster Hall and the Law Courts, three hundred feet. The building is in the Tudor style of architecture.

However unsatisfactory this *monster erection* may be in itself; yet it has led to most important consequences. The encouragement which the Commissioners have given to the Fine Arts has been great; added to which the high gratification afforded to the masses of our population. Let it never again be asserted, that our people of the lower orders have no taste for the Fine Arts. The experiments made by the exhibitions in Westminster Hall prove the very reverse.

The INNS OR HOTELS OF COURT are four in number, viz:—LINCOLN'S INN, The MIDDLE TEMPLE, The INNER TEMPLE, and GRAY'S INN. Whatever may have been the case formerly, each Inn of Court is now governed by its own *benchers*, who fill up the vacancies in their own body. To them also belongs the power of calling persons to the degree of barristers at law. The qualifications for entitling persons for this honour, are that they must be twenty-one years of age, have kept twelve terms, and have been for five years a member of the society; or if a graduate of one of the English universities, or of that of Trinity College, Dublin, three years. The expense of being called to the bar amounts to about £90, exclusive of three years' *commons*, and the admission fees.

LINCOLN'S INN derives its name from Henry Lacey, Earl

of Lincoln. The buildings form a quadrangle, the chapel and hall occupying two sides. A large Gothic structure has lately been erected, which, though antiquated and ugly without, is splendid and convenient within, containing a spacious dining room, a library, and various committee rooms and offices.

The INNER and MIDDLE TEMPLE join, the former having a hall and chapel; the latter a hall of curious workmanship, and several valuable paintings. The gardens extending along the banks of the Thames, have been already noticed.

GRAY'S INN, for its hall and chapel deserves the attention of visitors. The Inns of Chancery need not be enumerated.

EDUCATIONAL AND CHARITABLE ESTABLISHMENTS.

ROYAL MILITARY ASYLUM— <i>Chester</i> .	SCHOOL FOR THE INDIGENT BLIND, <i>St. George's Fields</i> .
LICENSED VICTUALLERS' SCHOOL— <i>Kennington Lane</i> .	WHITTINGTON'S ALMS HOUSES— <i>Highgate</i> .

NATIONAL education is a subject of such large extent that we cannot do more than glance at it. The matter now in dispute is not whether the masses of the people ought to be educated, but by what means it is to be done. The evils resulting from an uneducated population have become more and more apparent, loudly calling upon the government to make some effort for general educational purposes; our rural districts having remained as much neglected as our large towns.

The ministers of religion are, doubtless, the agents through which such a work should have been accomplished; although hitherto, from various causes, they have done very little in this most important work. Blameable as the clergy may have been in this respect, other causes have also contributed to rivet ignorance upon our youthful population. Had the funds



NEW LIBRARY TEMPLE



THE RAILWAY



GRAY'S INN HALL



MIDDLE TEMPLE HALL

of the church, at the time of the Reformation, been appropriately applied, not only might the inferior clergy have been suitably provided for, but every parish likewise have been provided with its schools. Instead of this, the immense funds which the church possessed have fallen partly into the hands of laymen, or the beneficed clergy have received such large incomes that the interests of others have been quite overlooked. Chantryies, and other popish foundations, were dissolved for the ostensible purpose of establishing grammar schools; yet, far from this having been done, it is notorious, as Strype justly observes, “that private men had most of the benefit, and the king and commonwealth, the state of learning and the condition of the poor, left as they were before, or worse.” It is equally certain that many grammar schools which were endowed for the education of the poorer classes, have been, to a great extent, diverted from their object; or the funds have been dissipated, in some way or other, not always easy of explanation.

The deplorable ignorance amongst the lower classes having long remained almost unchecked, the Rev. Mr. Stock, curate of St. John’s, Gloucester, about half a century ago, communicated the idea of Sunday instruction to the benevolent Mr. Raikes. Four Sunday schools were, in consequence, established in the parishes of St. John and St. Katherine. But, prior to this, in 1763, the Rev. Theophilus Lindsey had attempted something of the same kind at Catterick, in Yorkshire; and Miss Beil, a lady of piety and zeal, had commenced a Sunday school at High Wycombe, Bucks. Soon after the commencement of Sunday schools, Joseph Lancaster, a Quaker, laboured with great diligence, in Great Britain and America, for promoting an elementary education for the poor, by the establishment of day schools, since known by the name

of Lancastrian. Lancaster received the highest patronage, his Majesty George III. even not excepted; and travelled for some time as the agent of the British and Foreign School Society. Neither are Dr. Bell's schools less known, although more exclusive. The venerable Oberlin, pastor of Ban de la Roche, appears to have been the founder of infant schools.

By the labours of the excellent individuals just enumerated, the exertions of the Foreign and British School Society, and those of different congregations connected with the established church and the dissenters, hundreds of Sunday and day schools, for infant and elder children, have been established in most parts of the kingdom. Still much remains to be done; but which the efforts of the government, prudently conducted, may easily accomplish. The numerous schools already in operation need not be discouraged, but assisted; and special care taken to have properly conducted normal schools established, for the supply of well qualified schoolmasters and teachers.

Of the gross ignorance of the mistresses of many infant schools there can be but little doubt; and that the masters and teachers of day and Sunday schools are likewise often very deficient for the right discharge of their important duties, cannot be denied. But what are we to expect from masters and teachers sent out from such training schools as those of Battersea and Chelsea? Let our readers only witness the manner in which the services of the church are performed in the chapel of the training school at Chelsea, called St. Mark's College, to be convinced that the opinion entertained of this institution in the neighbourhood is not far from being correct, that it is a *seminary for mass priests*. We mourn to think that under the patronage of a right reverend prelate, *training schools* should be found, first initiating young men and boys





LICENCED MASTUALLER'S SCHOOL



CARTE FOR THE EDINBURGH EXHIBITION.

into a spurious Christianity, called, for want of a better name, *Tractarianism*; and then sending them out to inoculate the rising generation with the same *spiritual* poison. No institutions throughout the country require a stricter visitation by the legislature, than the training schools of Battersea and Chelsea.

The ROYAL MILITARY ASYLUM, Chelsea, was built under the immediate patronage of his late Royal Highness the Duke of York, who laid the first stone in 1801. It was originally designed for the reception of the children, boys and girls, of soldiers; but now only boys are received, who are brought up in military discipline. The educational system pursued, is that of Dr. Bell. The building is of brick; but the western front has a noble stone portico of the Doric order, consisting of four immense columns, supporting a large and well proportioned pediment, on the freize of which is inscribed “THE ROYAL MILITARY ASYLUM FOR THE CHILDREN OF THE SOLDIERS OF THE REGULAR ARMY.”

THE INSTITUTION FOR THE INDIGENT BLIND, St. George's Fields, is one of the many establishments which voluntary benevolence has raised for the relief of suffering humanity. This institution receives persons of twelve years of age and upwards, and of both sexes. Besides the advantage of learning to read, the inmates are taught some manual art, such as the making of baskets, cradles, mats, and various other articles. The girls are instructed in needle work and knitting. The number in the institution is about seventy. The building is a modern structure of Gothic architecture. Strangers are readily admitted; and the various articles wrought by the inmates, may be purchased at moderate prices.

The LICENSED VICTUALLERS' SCHOOL, Kennington, claims attention from the benevolent views of its patrons,

being designed as an asylum and school for the orphan children of licensed victuallers. The subscriptions and donations to this charity are augmented by funds arising from the publication of a daily paper, called "The Morning Advertiser;" —to which every member of the Society is expected to subscribe.

WHITTINGTON'S COLLEGE, OR ALMSHOUSE, Highgate-hill, was erected by the Mercers' Company; and forms a conspicuous object to travellers about entering London by the great north road.

THE SIGHTS OF LONDON.

OF the exhibitions of London, pictorial views of which could not be given, we can merely give a list:—

The Dulwich Gallery of Paintings; The British Institution, Pall-mall; The Society of British Artists, Suffolk-street; The Colosseum, Regent's Park; The Two Exhibitions for Water Colours, Pall-mall-east, and Pall-mall; The Museum of Economic Geology, Craig's Court, Charing-cross; The Diorama, Regent's Park; The Panorama, Leicester-square; Madame Tussaud's Wax Work, Baker-street, Portman-square; and Madame Wharton's *Tableaux Vivans*, Leicester-square.

The PRIVATE GALLERIES of paintings in and near London are:—The Grosvenor Gallery, Upper Grosvenor-street; The Stafford Gallery, Belgrave-square; The Duke of Sutherland's, St. James's Park; Lord Ashburton's, Piccadilly; Sir Robert Peel's, Whitehall-gardens; Mr. Samuel Rogers's, 12, St. James's Place; Mr. Vernon's, 50, Pall-mall; Mr. Hope's Duchess-street, Portland-place; Mr. C. Bridel's, Eaton-square; and Mr. Elhanan Bicknell's, Herne-hill.

THE END.

WHITTINGTON'S ALMS HOUSES - M-C-GATE





INDEX.

The figures refer to the page; those marked (h) to the History.

PAGE	PAGE		
Academy, Royal, of Arts	44	Bull, a Protestant	371
Achilles, Statue of.....	253	Burlington Arcade, The.....	356
Adelphi Terrace.....	383	Canons, Church.....	368
Admiralty, The	68	Canute, Notice of	h 24
Alfred, Notice of	h 174	Catholic Chapel, Moorfields	376
Albert Gate, Knightsbridge	36	Celibacy of the Clergy	h 53
Apsley House	252	Cemeteries, Metropolitan	322
Arcade, Burlington	356	Central Criminal Court.....	175
— Lowther	357	Chamberlain's Office	386
Arthur's Club House.....	139	Chapels of London	326
Assurance Society, National Mer- cantile Life, The	340	Charing Cross Suspension Bridge	55
Asylum, Military	407	Charter of William I.	h 37
Athenæum Club House.....	139	— Great	h 86
Bank of England, The	140	Cheapside	164
— London and Westminster, The	313	Chelsea	268
Barnes	264	— Hospital	206
Bartholomew's Hospital	229	Chiswick	264
Battersea	267	Christ's Hospital	13
Beckett, Thomas à	h 65	Church of England, History of the	359
Bethlem Hospital	218	— St. Martin's.....	70
Billingsgate Market	244	Churches of the Metropolis	357
Birmingham Railway.....	355	City of London, History of the	h 1
Blackfriars Bridge.....	297	City of London Bridges	293
Blackwall Railway.....	275	— Boundaries	h 9
Blind School, Indigent	407	— Companies	101
Bonner, Notice of	265	— Halls	385
Brentford	263	— Streets	164
Bridge over the Serpentine	340	— Wards	100
— Macclesfield	384	Club Houses	110
British Museum, The	299	College, King's	44
— Reading Rooms	304	— University	395
Brighton Railway	355	Colosseum	408
Buckingham Palace	65	Commerce of London	271
— Water Gate, The	183	Compter, Giltspur Street	175
		Consumption Hospital	237

INDEX.

PAGE	PAGE
Coram, Captain	213
Corn Exchange	4
Cornhill.....	164
Corporation of London	<i>h</i> 48 101
Covent Garden Market	246
——— Theatre.....	394
Court of Chancery.....	403
——— Common Pleas	<i>ibid</i>
——— Exchequer	<i>ibid</i>
——— Queen's Bench	<i>ibid</i>
——— Vice-Chancellor's	<i>ibid</i>
Crockford's Club House	110
Crosby Hall	400
Croydon Railway	355
Cumberland Terrace	383
Custom House, The	6
Danegelt, explained	<i>h</i> 22
Delivery of Letters	33
Diorama, The	408
Docks, East India, The.....	275
——— West India, The	274
Doomsday Book	<i>h</i> 41
Drama, English	386
Drury Lane Theatre	394
Duke of York's Column.....	64
East India House, The	328
Eastern Counties Railway	355
Educational Establishments	404
Egyptian Hall	108
Elgin Marbles	301
Eton College and Montem	261
Exchange, Corn.....	4
——— Royal	3, 4, 249
Exeter Hall	384
Fever Hospital	236
Finsbury Chapel	380
Fish, Supply of	241
Fish Street Hill.....	164
Foundling Hospital	210
Fulham	265
Galleries, Private	403
Gaming Houses.....	112
Goldsmiths' Hall	14
Goodwin Sands	<i>h</i> 47
Gray's Inn	404
Gravesend	278
Greenhithe	277
Greenwich Hospital	198
——— Park and Observatory.	198
——— Railway	355
Great Western Railway.....	355
Gregory VII., Pope	<i>h</i> 39
Gresham Street, New	164
Guildhall	385
Guy's Hospital	232
Hammersmith	265
Hampton Court Palace and Gar- dens	10
Harold, notice of	<i>h</i> 30
Haymarket Theatre	395
Highbury College	398
Highgate Cemetery	377
Horse Guards, The	91
Horticultural Gardens, Chiswick..	333
Hospitals, The.....	191
Humane Society, Royal.....	340
Hungerford Market	247
Hyde Park	38
Improvements, London	382
Institutions, Literary	395
Institution, London	400
Ironside, Edmund, notice of	244

INDEX.

PAGE	PAGE			
Isle of Dogs	274	Lowndes Square.....	383	
Isleworth	263	Luke's (St.) Hospital.....	192	
Italian Opera House	394	Luther, notice of	361	
 Jews, The..... <i>h</i> 17 & 42		 Mansion House, The.....		95
Katherine, (St.) Docks, The	273	Markets and Supplies	239	
Kew Gardens.....	263	Meat and Poultry	240	
Kensal Green Cemetery.....	337	Merchant Tailors' Hall	102	
Kensington Palace and Gardens...	338	Maud, Queen, Character of, ... <i>h</i>	55	
Kentish Men, The..... <i>h</i>	33	Middlesex Hospital	233	
King William Street, City ...	93, 164	Millbank, Penitentiary	177	
King's College	50	Milk	239	
Hospital	234	Mint, The	289	
— Evil, notice of	<i>h</i> 29	Monument, The.....	165	
Kingston	262	 National Gallery, The	39	
Lambeth Palace.....	80	Nelson's Column	252	
Law Courts	403	Newgate, Prison of	170	
Licensed Victuallers' School	407	Northfleet	277	
Limehouse.....	274	 Panorama	408	
Lincoln's Inn.....	403	Parliament, New Houses of	403	
Lock Hospital	234	Petition, Waterfowl's.....	104	
London Bridge	293	Pascal, Pope	<i>h</i> 51	
in Early Times... <i>h</i>	90	Payne's London.....	382	
Hospital	230	Phillippa, Queen	143	
under the Britons and		Pilots	<i>h</i> 26	
Romans..... <i>h</i>	1	Pitt, Anecdote of	267	
under the Saxons and		Polytechnic Institution	400	
Danes..... <i>h</i>	14	Pool, The	270	
from William I. to Henry		Post Office, General	20	
IV..... <i>h</i>	33	Poultry, Supply of.....	240	
from Henry IV. to James		Prisons, The	170	
I..... 2nd part <i>h</i>	1	Putney	266	
London under the House of Stuart,		Queen's Theatre	394	
2nd part..... <i>h</i>	40	Railways, Metropolitan	343	
from George I. to Queen		— Terminus, Nine Elms. <i>h</i>	355	
Victoria	61			
Lothbury	164			

INDEX.

PAGE	PAGE		
Railways, Terminus, London Bridge	355	Thames River, History of	254, 279
Reformation, Sketch of the	360	——— Tunnel	274
Regent's Park, The	322	Theatres, Metropolitan	386
Richmond Hill and Bridge	8, 262	Tilbury Fort	278
Rosherville, Gardens of	277	Tom Thumb's Song, General	109
Royal Academy of Arts	44	Tower of London	279
St. Bartholomew's Hospital	229	Treasury, The	383
St. George's Hospital	230	Trinity House, The	286
St. John's Gate	179	Tussaud, Madame	408
St. James's Park	103	Twickenham	262
St. Luke's Hospital	218	Tyler, Watt	h 160
St. Mark's College	406	Unitarian Chapel	381
St. Paul's Cathedral	373	United Service Club, New	188
Scottish Church	369	University College	395
Sessions House	176	——— Hospital	233
Serpentine, The	340	Vauxhall Bridge	269
Sights of London	408	Victuallers, Licensed	408
Small Pox Hospital	236	Victoria Park	322
Smithfield	243	Virginia Water	259
Somerset House	11, 54	Wandsworth	267
Southwark Bridge	296	Waterloo Bridge	77
Sports of England	h 12	Westminster Abbey	375
Statues of London	249	——— Bridge	87
Statue of Queen Victoria	251	——— Hall	402
——— William IV	252	——— Hospital	233
——— George III	252	Wharton, Madame	408
——— George IV	252	Whitehall, Banqueting House, The	76
——— Duke of Wellington	253	Whittington, notice of, <i>2nd part</i> , h	6
——— Achilles	254	Whittington's Alms Houses	408
Steam Boats, Gravesend	278	Will, Singular	162
——— Carriages	349	Windsor	259
——— Engines	345	Woolwich	276
——— Navigation	347	Zion House	263
Sunday Schools	406	Zoological Gardens, Regent's Park	324
Surgeons, College of	399	——— Surrey	325
Teddington	262		
Temple, The	403		
——— Bar	337		

HISTORY OF LONDON.

LONDON UNDER THE BRITONS AND ROMANS.

THE origin both of nations and cities is generally involved in obscurity or enveloped with fables. It is therefore not surprising that London does not form an exception to the general rule. Some of our early chroniclers have referred the foundation of the British metropolis to Brutus, a name so well known in the history of the Romans; but there can be no doubt that either this must be a mistake, or an attempt to make its connexion with the Romans of older date than it really is.

The existence of a city or fortified town on the site of modern London before the invasion of the Romans is certain. Cæsar, although he does not mention it as a city, yet refers to the Trinobantes as inhabitants of this locality; and which, according to some antiquarian etymologists, literally signifies *Town in the Valley*. And certainly, the exact position of London could not be more accurately described; for the vale of London is one of the most extensive in the British dominions, taken at its least dimensions from Brentwood to Windsor one way, and from Hampstead to the Surrey hills in another. Or, according to the enlarged view of geology, the *chalk basin* in which London lies is comprehended in an acute triangle; one of its longest sides extending from Hungerford in Berkshire, to the northern coast of

Norfolk, and the other from Hungerford, to Deal in Kent; its shorter side taking in the whole coast from near Cromer in Norfolk, to Deal, with the exception of the Isle of Thanet.

The locality, therefore, is peculiar; and being also but a short distance from the estuary of a noble river, it seems adapted by nature as the site on which some mighty city should be founded, if not of one which was to become the *mistress* of the seas, and the *emporium* of the world. Neither should it be called supposition, if it should be believed, that the selection of this very spot was made by some *master-mind* among the Britons, who, by a kind of *second-sight*, could look into the annals of futurity, and perceive the future greatness to which the *city of the valley* was destined.

Cæsar is the first writer by whom any authentic particulars of the ancient Britons is given. He effected a landing on the island, after a severe struggle, somewhere between Walmer Castle and Sandwich, in the autumn of the year 53 b.c. From this period until about the year 402 a.d. the island, with occasional interruptions, was more or less under the government of the Romans. The account which Cæsar gives of our heathen forefathers is too interesting to be passed over in silence. One extract or two from his Commentaries will not be thought a digression.

“The inland part of Britain,” says this authentic and graphic author, “is inhabited by those who, according to the existing tradition, were the aborigines of the island; the sea-coast, by those who, for the sake of plunder, or in order to make war, had crossed over from among the Belgæ, (the modern French,) and in almost every case retain the names of their native states from which they emigrated to this island, in which they made war and settled,

and began to till the land. The population is very great and the buildings very numerous, closely resembling those of the Gauls : the quantity of cattle is considerable. For money they use copper, or rings of iron of a certain weight. Tin is produced there in the midland districts, and iron near the sea-coast, but the quantity of this is small ; the copper which they use is imported. There is timber of every kind which is found in Gaul, excepting beech and fir. They deem it unlawful to eat the hare, the hen, and the goose ; these animals, however, they breed for amusement. The country has a more temperate climate than Gaul, the cold being less intense. Of all the natives, those who inhabit *Cantium* (Kent) are by far the most civilized, and do not differ much in their customs from the Gauls. The inland people, for the most part, do not sow corn, but live on milk and flesh, and have their clothing of skins. All the Britons, however, stain themselves with *woad*, which makes them of a blue tinge, and gives them a more fearful appearance in battle ; they also wear their hair long, and shave every part of the body except the head and the upper lip. Every ten or twelve of them have their wives in common, especially brothers with brothers, and parents with children ; but if any children are born, they are accounted the children of those by whom first each virgin was espoused."

Druidism flourished amongst the Britons in all its horrors ; and is even considered as having originated in Britain. The Druids were regarded as the ministers of religion, having the charge of all sacrifices. They also, conformably with the practice of ancient nations, acted as judges, the laws, both civil and religious, being of the most severe kind. One Druid presided over the rest, on whose death another was appointed in his room. The Druids were exempted from military service, and

had freedom from all public burdens. Their religion was oral, it being thought wrong to commit it to writing. It is a general belief with them, that souls do not perish at death, but pass into other bodies. They also believed in astrology. The Druids, moreover, maintained, that the favour of the gods cannot be conciliated unless the life of one man be offered up for that of another.¹ Images of enormous size, made of wicker-work, having the form of the human figure, and filled with living men, were on some public occasions offered as a burnt-offering to their gods, more particularly to Mercury. Such a religion must have stamped a ferocity upon the abettors of it, and of which, but for the existence of facts, it might have been hoped that human nature was incapable.

But to return. The Romans, with the national spirit of all conquerors, affected to bring British under Roman denominations; hence, probably, the name of *Augusta*, by which the city was once called. But had it been originally constructed by them, they would have imposed upon it a Roman name. The probability therefore is, that the Romans finding a city already in existence, on this *site*, merely Latinized the native name, and denominated it *Londinium*, or London.

Let it not, however, be imagined, that at this early period towns were reared for regular and general residence. The very contrary is the fact. The testimony of Cæsar and Tacitus both concur in stating that the ordinary dwellings of the Britons were in the open country, and that towns were erected as their places of refuge amid the dangers of war, and where their wives, children, and cattle might be safely lodged. These towns were generally in the centre of a wood, and secured by a ditch and ramparts. From these retreats their more civilized assailants were often re-

pulsed; a prowess being evinced to which the Romans themselves have given deserved praise.

One of the first objects which the Romans were anxious to pursue was the construction of military roads, or causeways, preparatory to the general's approach, and were usually made in as straight a line as possible, from station to station. But it is remarkable, that even in this important step toward improved civilization the Romans were anticipated by the ancient Britons. There is undoubted authority to show that two of these *itinera*, or causeways, namely, *Watling* and *Ikening street*, were undertaken before the Roman invasion. Their object seems to have been commercial, as well as military; enabling them to traverse the central and more distant parts of the island for the purpose of barter.

It is important also to notice, that of the fifteen *itinera* mentioned by Antoninus in his Itinerary, no less than seven of that number commence or terminate at London; demonstrating the great consequence to which this ancient city had arrived at this very early period.

The precise date when the *Trinobantes* became subject to the Romans cannot perhaps be stated with much precision. It is certain that previous to the year 61, A. D., the heroic and patriotic Boadicea, in her revengeful march against the Romans, compelled the General Suetonius to evacuate London, which was reduced to ashes by her followers, and the inhabitants, being attached to the Romans, destroyed or put to flight. The unfortunate queen in this conflict lost both her crown and her life. The city, however, arose from its ruins with the resuscitated life of a *phœnix*; for the Romans having regained their ascendancy, assisted the inhabitants in the reconstruction of their

city ; and which, from the arts which they had learned from their conquerors, acquired a degree of regularity of design and permanency of materials hitherto unknown.

They for the first time constructed regular streets, and substituted bricks and tiles for mud, reeds, and shingles. The Britons, from their insular situation, were, from the earliest periods of their history, known as a commercial people. The inhabitants of London, from their peculiar advantages of position, were eminently so, and which the sagacity and intelligence of the Romans could not fail to discover. A city rising on a gentle declivity, in the heart of a fertile soil and wholesome climate, at a commodious distance from the sea, and washed by a beautiful, deep, and broad river, navigable by vessels of every form and size, it seemed in immediate contact with every part of the Continent, and, as experience has demonstrated, with every port and shore of the globe. In London, therefore, the Romans fixed their *emporium*, and wisely incorporated the original inhabitants with Roman citizens.

The elements of the rapid rise of cities must be based on traffic. Barter is the main-spring of commerce, and the distinguishing characteristic of human beings. "Man," says a great writer,* "is an animal that makes bargains. No other animal does this. One dog does not change a bone with another." The early trade of London consisted in *imports* of salt, earthenware, works in brass and polished bone, horse-collars, ornaments, and toys of different kinds. The *exports* comprised tin, cattle, horses, skins, corn, and dogs ; this latter article being highly prized on the Continent for their native courage and docility, especially those designed for the chase. It is lamentable to add, that our *heathen*

* Adam Smith.

fathers, at this very early period of their history, were exporters of *human flesh*. Feuds were often provoked and warfare waged by the petty sovereigns of Britain for the promotion of that *most unrighteous traffic—the slave-trade*.

London had now become subject to Roman government, and under the prefects, especially Agricola, assumed the appearance, and was actually called “a great and wealthy city.” It does not, however, appear to have been subjected to the inconvenient restrictions of a garrison-town, but remained a free city, the Roman and Briton being happily mingled together. Peace and prosperity were attended with an enlargement of this *renowned* city.

The ancient limits, hitherto confined between *Fleet River* and *Walbrook*, became extended to the eastern side of Tower-hill, and westerly, to the declivity of Ludgate-hill, the width being bounded on the north by a causeway which ran parallel with Cheapside, winding at each extremity towards the Thames.

Sir Christopher Wren, the great architect, has furnished materials for defining with accuracy the northern boundary of this primitive city, together with many important facts connected with its early history. He discovered, on opening the ground for a firm foundation to the church of St. Mary-le-Bow, which was about to be rebuilt after the great fire of 1666, the *walls* and *pavement* of a Roman temple, entirely buried beneath the level of the street. A deeper excavation being made to the depth of eighteen feet, a *Roman causeway* was discovered, of rough stone, but firmly cemented, and of four feet in thickness. The result demonstrated that this was a portion of the *causeway* or *highway* which had formed the northern boundary of the town. It was also ascertained, about the same time, by the discovery of certain *Roman*

remains, that the western confines of the city did not go beyond the top of Ludgate-hill.

A Roman *milliarium*, or standard mile-stone, probably co-eval in date with the causeway, and which was reared in the centre of the city, serving as a measure to their several stations, is still in existence in Cannon-street, and known by the name of *London-stone*. It has been preserved with great care, and was doubtless regarded, in former times, as the *palladium* of the city.

The principal causeways, or military roads, were *Watling-street*, which led from Port *Ritupis*, near Sandwich, through Kent and Surrey, by the Kent-road to Stoney-street, and so to Winchester-wharf, where was a *trajectus*, or ferry, connecting the shores of Surrey and Middlesex, and entering the city at Dowgate, passing by a south-east and north-west direction to Newgate. The *Erraine-street* causeway traversed a south-westerly course, accompanying the *Watling-street* from Southwark, likewise entering by Dowgate, passing through by Cripplegate, taking its way by Highbury-barn to Strand-green. The *Vicinal-way* conducting from the city, by Aldgate, to Bethnal-green, and then to the *trajectus* at Old-ford, across the river Lea, to Leytonstone, in Essex.

Much controversy has been created respecting the precise period when the city was first enclosed with walls. Certain it is that during the reign of Diocletian and Maximian the city remained unfortified, since about the year 296 it narrowly escaped being pillaged by a party of pirate Franks, who had determined to ransack London, and escape to sea with their booty. But a Roman squadron having been detached in a fog from the main fleet, opportunely entered the Thames, and libe-

rated the inhabitants of the city from their perilous situation. The probability therefore is, that Theodosius, Governor of Britain in 368, caused walls to be erected. The correctness of this epoch is strengthened by the fact that the Roman forces had been so diminished in number during the reigns of Constantius, Julian, and Valentinian, that they were unable successfully to contend against the Picts, Scots, Franks, and Saxons, who by turns invaded Britain, and reduced the country to the greatest distress. The Roman governor fortunately arrived, routed the enemy with great slaughter, and entered the oppressed and famished city in triumph.

The boundaries of the walls it may be important to trace. The wall commenced at the Tower of London, eastward, and passed by Jewry-street to Aldgate. From Aldgate the wall formed a curve, and traversed through Bevis Marks, Camomile-street, and Houndsditch, to Bishopsgate-street. Thence taking a westerly direction through Bishopsgate Church-yard, it continued its course behind Wormwood-street, and Allhallows Church, till it reached Moorgate, at the end of Coleman-street. Continuing in a straight direction, it abutted at Cripplegate. Hence it continued westerly along the back of Hart-street and Cripplegate Church-yard. From this place the wall took a southerly direction, between Castle-street and Monkwell-street. We pursue its course at the back of Noble-street; it then again proceeded westerly to Aldersgate. Keeping at the back of St. Botolph's Church-yard, it continued by Christ's Hospital to Newgate. Hence it proceeded by Warwick-square and Stationers' Hall, to Ludgate-hill. From Ludgate it continued by New Bridge-street to the Thames: the total of the circuit being *two miles and six hundred and eight feet.*

The city was originally entered from the country by three gates : the eastern portion by *Aldgate*, from the north by *Aldersgate*, and from the west by *Ludgate*, a corruption, no doubt, of *Fludgate*. In process of time, however, other gates were erected for the convenience of the citizens : as the *Posterngate*, by the Tower, said to have been built with stones brought from Kent and Normandy. *Bishopsgate*, conjectured to have been built by Bishop William, about 675. *Moorgate*, situated near the north-end of Coleman-street in 1415. *Bridgegate*, so named from being on old London-bridge. *Doungate*, or water-gate, was where the *trajectus*, or Roman ferry was situated, at the entrance of the *Watling-street* causeway, from the Surrey side. Some of these gates were very handsome and costly structures. When in the last stage of decay, they were pulled down in 1760. A statue of Queen Elizabeth, which stood on the west side of Ludgate, of exquisite beauty, was purchased by Sir Francis Gosling, and, after being thrown aside for some years, has been lately placed over the *eastern door* of the Church of St. Dunstan, in Fleet-street.

Camden believes that the word *Barbican* is of Arabic origin, and literally signifies a “watch-tower.” Such a building was usually attached to fortified towns ; and in the case of London, stood, without doubt, east of the walls of *Aldersgate*, and in the street still known by the name of *Barbican*, although every trace of its existence has for centuries been removed, the dangers having ceased which such an erection was designed to avert. Cohorts of soldiers were kept here, watching by day the approach of any hostile force, and by night keeping lights on the summit of the tower, to guide the traveller or market-people coming to the city with provisions. This, however, must be

referred rather to the vigilance and improved discipline of the Romans than to the Britons. Such a custom seemed to have been retained to a comparatively late period ; for previous to the *great fire* of London, a *lantern* was accustomed to be raised every night to the top of the steeple of Bow church.

The fort or Tower of London was not merely in existence as a means of defence, during the later period of the occupation of this city by the Romans, but served also as *the mint*, as well as *the treasury*, for depositing the public money ; some gold coins of the Emperors Honorius and Arcadius were discovered in 1777, whilst digging the foundation of a new office for the Board of Ordnance. The Romans also had established in London, certainly not later than about 359 A. D., a *field of Mars*. John Bagford, the antiquary, writing on this subject, says—“that in the further side of Whitechapel-street, near Bishopsgate-street, was another station of the Romans, in that part which formerly bore the name of the Artillery-ground, and was then the *field of Mars*, in which place the Romans trained up and exercised their young soldiers, and likewise the youth of the neighbouring Britons, in the skill and exercise of arms, that they might be more expert in the use of them upon all emergent occasions ; and it must needs have been a very large place, as the same is excellently described, and likewise observed to have been a Roman camp, by a judicious author in the reign of Queen Elizabeth.”

About the same period, although no certain date is afforded us, the commerce of the city must have been very considerable. For such were the augmented resources of the port from extended agriculture, and facility of inland communication, by the exports which are recorded to have taken place, amounting to

no less than *eight hundred cargoes* of grain. So early had that commercial enterprise begun amongst the inhabitants of a city whose ships were destined one day to ride over all seas, and enter into every harbour of the habitable world.

Our forefathers, rude as they may appear to have been, became apt scholars under the enlightened tuition of their Roman masters. Besides being well versed in military tactics, both offensive and defensive, they were initiated in those arts and sciences most conducive to their future comfort and prosperity. This is so apparent, that in the reign of Constantine the Britons had acquired so much celebrity in the art of building, that the Emperor ordered the dilapidated towns of Gaul, and certain fortresses on the Rhine, to be repaired by British architects and artificers.

It would seem most desirable at this early period of our history, if it were possible, to ascertain what were the sports and pastimes practised by the common people; for a knowledge of this would develope the character of a people more than any other means. It becomes essential to know how the leisure hours are passed, in order to form a correct estimation of the character of any particular people. It is, however, certain, that the Romans having guided them in matters of art and science, would also greatly assist them in the choice even of their amusements. And it is evident that the Roman people had more correct ideas on this subject than the better civilized nations of modern times, particularly the English. The nations of antiquity were quite aware that man requires relaxation after the fatigues of the day; and that the lower classes especially, having but little means of securing much domestic comfort, would fall into vicious habits, unless diversions were provided for them.

This induced the Romans to establish general holidays and fêtes, together with various sports calculated to rouse their physical energies, and divert the mind. Running, leaping, swimming, wrestling, boxing, hustling, and other such practices, were encouraged as *amusements*. That such practices were often attended with acts of savage barbarity cannot be denied ; yet even with these terrible abuses they perhaps did great good, especially among a barbarous yet athletic people. All the information indeed which remains respecting our ancestors is derived from foreign writers only partially acquainted with them. From their testimony it is apparent that our forefathers, ever tenacious of their native liberty, and inured to great bodily fatigue, readily followed those pastimes most in vogue with their conquerors ; pursuing athletic exercises, not so much in a martial point of view, as a source of amusement. Hunting, also, was a favourite practice of the ancient Britons, and for which the native dogs have ever been celebrated. We learn one curious fact respecting their early field-sports from Cæsar's history, that they did not reckon *hares* as animals of chase, nor did they eat their flesh, although the island abounded with them ; an abstinence which arose from a principle of *religion*. Neither were there at this period any restrictive laws for the preservation of game. The law of our unpolished ancestors was the law of the creation—that such things as had no masters a right was invested in their first possessors ; wild beasts, birds, and fishes became the property of those who could first take them. Had this law remained unrepealed to the present hour, how much disgraceful litigation, demoralization, persecution, and bloodshed would have been prevented !

Britain had at various times been visited by others beside the

Romans; and the time was now come when it was to be overrun by numerous and cruel enemies, in which calamity London also participated. The Romans having lost their ascendancy over the nations of Europe, Alaric, king of the Goths, entered the imperial city, and the enfeebled Roman legions in Britain, towards the beginning of the fifth century, bade an eternal adieu both to London and the whole island.

LONDON DURING THE DOMINION OF THE SAXONS AND DANES,

TO THE TIME OF WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR

SCARCELY had the protection of the Roman *eagles* been withdrawn, ere the Britons perceived that they were now shorn of their strength. The natives, left to their own resources and means of defence, and soon finding themselves incompetent to resist the desperate incursions of the Picts and Scots, were induced to solicit the assistance of the Saxons, a fierce, untamed, and courageous people. Hengist and Horsa were the leaders of these marauders, and landed in the Isle of Thanet in 449. The Britons perceived, when it was too late, the fallacy of trusting their independence to a foreign power, and discovered that in relieving themselves from one enemy they had fallen a prey to another. The Saxons soon took occasion to violate that compact which had authorized their appearance in Britain. For eight or nine years after the arrival of the Saxons the Britons retained possession of London, since in 457, having been defeated

at Crayford, in Kent, they fled to their capital, *Lunden Byrig*. Vortigern and Vortimer were the royal leaders, under whom the Britons continued the war ; but Hengist, unable to obtain any decisive advantage in the field, had recourse to treachery for the completion of his conquest. He made Vortigern prisoner, and received as the king's ransom the provinces of Essex, Middlesex, and Sussex. London became the chief city of the Saxon kingdom of Essex, and which, though from its mercantile importance it suffered more than any other part of the island during the fruitless and sanguinary struggles to free themselves from the Saxon yoke ; yet in the early part of the seventh century, according to Bede, it had recovered its ascendancy, and was declared to be "*the emporium of many nations.*"

About the period at which we are now arrived a new era presents itself to our notice. It is said, that a number of fine youths being exposed in the forum at Rome for sale, the pope, who happened to be there, inquired their country ; and on being informed that they were English, (Angli,) he exclaimed; "*Non Angli, sed Angeli,*" (Not English, but angels !) and finding them uninstructed heathens, formed the resolution of converting their country to the Christian faith. Augustin, a pious and eloquent monk, and forty of his own order were sent to preach the gospel in Britain. This was about the year 597. Austin, as he is more generally called, first addressed himself to King Ethelbert, who turned a deaf ear to all his persuasive eloquence ; but afterwards, by the entreaties of Bertha, his queen, he consented to embrace the Christian faith : he received baptism at the hands of the Roman monk. Austin was, soon after this, made Archbishop of Canterbury. So successful was this ecclesiastic in his mission, after the conversion of the king,

that tradition says he baptized ten thousand persons of both sexes in one day. This proving inconvenient to the newly-made archbishop, he determined upon consecrating all the water of the river *Swale*, solemnly declaring "that those who immersed themselves in this stream had received the valid grace of baptism." Thus rapidly did the kingdom of the "*Man of sin*" increase in England, even at this very early period.

Miletus was appointed, by the Metropolitan, Bishop of London, and conducted himself with so much wisdom and moderation that his converts became both numerous and respectable. He erected a cathedral on the ruins of a heathen temple, which he dedicated to St. Paul. At this time the quarter which the city of Westminster now occupies was a small island, surrounded by a morass, and denominated *Thorney*. Here a Roman temple, dedicated to Apollo, had stood; but upon the rapid advance of the Christian doctrines, Sebert, King of the East Saxons, was induced to erect another Christian church, which he dedicated to St. Peter.

Ethelbert, King of Kent, to whom the other sovereigns were feudatory, established his seat of empire at Canterbury, constituting it the metropolis of England. London thus lost the protective and prescriptive power of the court, an influence mainly contributive in promoting the opulence and importance of a city. But London could not be deprived of its local advantages as a trading port, and therefore retained its commercial superiority. In a short time after, it began to acquire an additional degree of consequence, as it was enabled to dispute the right of ecclesiastical, as it did of civil authority, with Canterbury and York, though it did not attain the grandeur of either of these two cities for nearly three centuries afterwards.

In 658 commerce, the source of wealth, became also a source of woe, by introducing the dreadful scourge of pestilence, which ravaged and depopulated the city. Little is known of London after this until the year 764, when, the streets being narrow, and the houses mostly made of wood, a great part of the city was consumed by fire.

At the establishment of the Heptarchy, under the brave and prudent Egbert, in 827, London was appointed to be the royal residence; and here a *Wittenagemot*, or Parliament, was held in 833. The city appears to have been further fortified during this reign, especially where the Tower of London, at the south-east corner of the wall, commands the river and the bridge. But strong and merciless invaders were soon to make the foundations of the island tremble; and London, among many other unfortunate towns, was made to feel the most barbarous and unrelenting outrages, and, at length, to be reduced to a state of the most grievous and humiliating servitude to the savage Danes. In 835, after having previously pillaged various other quarters of the kingdom, and burnt Canterbury, they forced their way to London, which they first plundered, and then reduced to ashes. These ravages continued until the death of Ethelbert in 872.

But a deliverer was at hand. The illustrious Alfred, to whom, even at this day, the whole realm is indebted for all the privileges which a great, an enlightened, and a cultivated mind could suggest, having shaken off the Danish yoke, and restored the kingdom to tranquillity and order, gave directions for rebuilding the desolated cities. London in particular claimed his attention; and under such protection, she soon arose more splendid than ever from her fall.

Few monarchs in any age or country have surrounded themselves with so much well-deserved glory as Alfred. He was centuries in advance of the times in which he lived ; and whilst he did much and wrote more for others, his own personal history is very imperfectly known. His chivalrous name and exploits are, notwithstanding, emblazoned on the page of British annals, but still more on the heart, affections, and gratitude of every free-born Englishman. To him we owe that liberty of privilege, that right of justice, which we hold to be more vital to our moral existence than the air which we breathe to our physical life. That excellent system of municipal government which we possess, with various modifications and improvements, at the present day, emanated from him. He gave the first sketch of those rights of men and of citizens on which the Revolution was afterwards based, and in the defence of which every freeman would willingly shed the last drop of his heart's blood. Alfred could but feel that the partial establishment of the Danes in his country must be a perpetual cause of misery and disquietude to the people, and that these hostile settlers were regardless of their most solemn oaths and treaties ; he therefore resolved to free his kingdom from such marauders. He accordingly began by repairing his decayed fortresses ; and then suddenly laid siege to London, which he forced to capitulate. This took place in 884. After improving the buildings and strengthening the city walls, he appointed his son-in-law Ethelred governor, with the title of Earl of Mercia. This nobleman seems to have been invested with more than ordinary authority, and had no doubt some tenure of power delegated to him, but with the particulars of which we are not acquainted.

During the last-named year Alfred caused several large vessels to be constructed on an improved system, which he allowed the merchants of London to hire, assisting them also with the loan of money, to undertake lengthened voyages to the Levant and elsewhere.

About 893 Alfred had the mortification of witnessing an extensive demolition of the capital by another accidental fire. His wise and prudent regulations had already made considerable improvement in the building of houses, both as to their construction and materials. He wisely substituted bricks and stone instead of wood, and in this he was followed by the more opulent citizens and resident nobility, who by degrees emulated each other in copying this "*novel and wondrous*" style of architecture.

The restless and ambitious Danes, actuated by a love of plunder, were still led onward with the hope of final conquest. They landed near Tilbury in Essex, under the command of Hastings, having erected a fort at South Benfleet, near the isle of Canvey; from whence they were routed and their castle taken by Ethelred. The spirit of the citizens had now so revived, that they found themselves in a condition, for the first time since the departure of the Romans, not only to defend their walls, but to sally forth and meet the invaders.

The citizens of London, under such a leader as Ethelred, already gave proof that their commercial pursuits and peaceful occupations did not incapacitate them from signalizing their prowess in the field, when their country needed their services. They combined valour in arms, with ability and diligence in traffic. Fitz-Stephen, a learned monk of the twelfth century, in his account of the inhabitants of London, says,

“ They were always glorious in manhood, and notable beyond all other citizens in urbanity of manners, attire, table, and talk ; the matrons being the very modest Sabine ladies of Italy.”

Alfred may with truth be called a great and enlightened statesman. London had long claimed his special regard, and its inhabitants had experienced the benefits which would accrue to them from a connexion with him. He, therefore, moved by the importance of the place and the desire of strengthening his frontier against the Danes, restored London to its ancient splendour ; observing “ that though the manners of many of the Saxons and Danes were loose and disorderly, owning no government, yet, if they would submit and become his subjects, he would offer them now a comfortable establishment.” The proposition was better received than he expected, and the multitude, grown weary of a dissolute life, joyfully accepted such an offer. From this compact it is but reasonable to assume, that, since Alfred had already divided the counties into *hundreds* and *tythings*, he should now, for the first time, separate the city into *wards* and *precincts*. It may be probable, also, that a *mayor* might at this time have been appointed, corresponding to the *sheriff* of a county.

The welfare of the city having been thus based on such admirable foundations, it is not to be wondered at, if the succeeding reign of Edward the Elder should be propitious. When Athelstan, Edward’s successor, ascended the throne, London had attained to a brilliant era of prosperity, equalled by no other city in the kingdom. An illustration of this was given in 939, when it received the privilege of coining : a greater number of mints were allotted to it than even to

Canterbury. Maritime commerce did not extend in proportion to its internal improvement, since an enactment was made about 925, "that every merchant who made three voyages to the Mediterranean, on his own account, should be raised to the honour, and enjoy the privileges of a *gentleman*."

The monarch, at this period, resided in the centre of the city, his palace being situated near *Addle-street, Aldermanbury*. During the next reign, that of Edmund, another parliament was held in London for ecclesiastical purposes. The abilities of Edgar, who began his reign in 959, and his wise administration, caused a number of foreigners to resort to his capital. This intercourse, however, became injurious to the morals of the inhabitants; drunkenness having become so habitual that Edgar instituted a law, that within every drinking cup of certain dimensions there should be pins fixed at particular distances, and if any person was convicted of *drinking beyond the mark*, he should be mulcted.

In 961 St. Paul's Cathedral was burnt. A malignant fever also proved fatal to great numbers. St. Paul's was rebuilt during the same year, which leads to the conclusion that buildings, even in the tenth century, must have been on a small scale and composed of wood.

During the reign of Edgar, land was not valued at more than *one shilling* per acre. The *Winchester measure* also became the standard metage by statute law. It was further ordained that one and the same money should be current throughout the kingdom, and that the king's coin should alone be received.

The zenith of Saxon London had now passed its meridian.

The inglorious reign of the pusillanimous Ethelred II. was singularly unfortunate to the city. In the fourth year of this reign it was again almost entirely consumed by fire ; and scarcely was this calamity over, when the Danes threatened the whole country with an invasion. At this date, probably from the dread of fire, the greater number of dwellings were outside the walls, to the west of Ludgate.

A numerous fleet was fitted out at London, in 992, in order to prevent the landing of another army of Danes and Norwegians, in which a conspicuous part was taken by the inhabitants of London, and the enemy were dispersed. Two years after Anlaf and Sweyn, kings of Norway and Denmark, appeared before the city with a fleet of ninety-four ships ; but the undaunted valour of its citizens again saved them, and the Danes were obliged to raise the siege. Instead of Ethelred being inspired with courage at the heroic conduct of his faithful citizens, he had recourse to the despicable expedient of purchasing a respite, by paying a large sum in silver, equivalent to £400,000 of the present money, and from whence arose the tax called *Danegelt*.

A short digression will explain this. *Danegelt* was a tax upon the land. But, even at this period, the king could not levy it without the consent of the Wittenagemot, or great council. The original imposition was one Saxon shilling on each hide of land in the kingdom. As the whole was computed to be two hundred and forty-three thousand six hundred hides, the produce of the tax, at one shilling, was twelve thousand one hundred and eighty Saxon pounds, equivalent to nearly £400,000, according to the value of the present money. While the Danish visits were annually re-

peated, the sovereign could put little into his coffers of the surplus of the tax, as the whole, and sometimes more, was expended in fighting or bribing the invaders. But when the government of the country became Danish, Danegelt became one of the principal sources of revenue to the crown. Those who had no means of payment were subjected to the confiscation of lands and possessions. Houses in town were assessed to the tax, and a house of such a value, or rent, paid the same rent as a hide of land. This tax was not wholly remitted until the time of Henry II.

The English at this time were oppressed with every species of national calamity, until at length, after a series of complicated misery for ten years, Ethelred was obliged to retire into Normandy in 1013, leaving his distressed country to the insatiate barbarity of the conquerors. London, thus deserted, was compelled to open her gates to her bitterest enemies and to submit to the Danish court. Exhausted as the citizens were, they determined to make a last effort for reviving the expiring liberties of their country, assisted by the gallant Prince Edmund. In this instance the imbecility of the father counteracted the diligence and address of the son. The king, having returned from Normandy, suddenly retreated within the walls, where the mortified prince was soon compelled to join him. Ethelred expired in the metropolis, leaving his country and his family in the most desperate situation. He was buried in St. Paul's cathedral.

The brave Edmund Ironside was immediately crowned in London, amidst the acclamations of the patriotic and loyal citizens, though his rival, Canute, had been crowned at Southampton. This was in 1016. But this act of royalty

in the inhabitants of London did not long remain unrevenged. Canute determined to carry on the siege of the city yet more vigorously. He was, however, so valiantly repulsed that his army was soon withdrawn. It was at this period that a semi-circular canal was cut from the Thames, probably about Rotherhithe, to St. Saviour's Dock ; some are of opinion that it was carried much further westerly. Edmund now putting himself at the head of his army followed Canute, and proved successful against him in several battles. He returned, and entered the city amidst the loud acclamations of the people. Indeed, the affairs of the king were so successful that sanguine hopes were entertained that the Danes would be driven quite out of England ; but, in consequence of the treachery of Edric, his brother-in-law, who went over to the enemy during the action which was fought at Walden, in Essex, victory was carried against him, and Edmund, thus betrayed, retired to Gloucester.

Canute now hastened to London ; and Edmund's partisans finding further resistance for the present useless, agreed to purchase peace by the payment of a large sum of money, and receive the conqueror into their city. But the untiring spirit of Edmund remained unsubdued. He lost no time in recruiting his army, and was soon in a condition once more to take the field. Canute also, in his turn, had made preparations for renewed hostilities. The two armies had already approached so near that only the *Severn* parted them. At this juncture it was agreed, in conformity with the romantic *chivalry* of the times, to decide the contest by single combat. Canute was by no means deficient in personal courage, although not a match for the indomitable Edmund. At the

first onset the lances of them both were broken ; their swords were now drawn, when Canute, retreating a few paces, proposed an amicable adjustment of their differences : to this Edmund generously consented. It was agreed that the kingdom should be divided between them ; and London falling to the share of Canute, its inhabitants acknowledged him for their sovereign. Edmund, however, did not long survive this arrangement, being brutally murdered by his brother-in-law, Edric. Canute was put in possession of the whole kingdom, and crowned at London by Archbishop Levingus, A. D. 1017.

But Canute, far from being a party to this foul murder, ordered several of those who were concerned in it to be publicly executed. Edric at first escaped ; but afterwards, reproaching Canute with having neglected him, and confessing also that he had murdered Edmund, the king is said to have made the following memorable reply : “ Thy blood be upon thy head, for thy mouth hath testified against thee, saying, *I have slain the Lord's anointed !* ” On saying this, he ordered Edric immediately to be hanged, and his dead body thrown into the Thames.

One of the first steps of the king after his accession, was to marry Emma, sister of Richard, Duke of Normandy, and widow of King Ethelred. He also determined to send back to Denmark his vast fleet and armies, but not without making this a pretext for levying the sum of £72,000 on the nation ; one seventh of which was rated upon London : a strong proof of the population and wealth of the city at this early period. Canute died in 1036, after a reign of nearly twenty years.

The succession to the throne is always difficult amongst a people only half-civilized, especially when there are several claimants. This was the case in the present instance. Canute left two sons, Harold, surnamed Harefoot, by his Queen Elgiva, and Hardicanute by Queen Emma. Hardicanute at this time was absent. Edward, the son of Ethelred, was also a claimant for the crown. The English generally declared either for Edward or Hardicanute, whereas London was in favour of Harold. Edward's party soon declined ; and, for the peace of the realm, it was at length determined that Canute's two sons should divide the kingdom between them. But Hardicanute not returning, a *wittenagemot* or parliament was held at Oxford, where many of the thanes, or nobles, north of the Thames, assembled with the livery or *pilots* of London, and Harold was chosen their king.

Our readers cannot but notice, from the foregoing statement, the importance already attached to the inhabitants of London ; none but the nobility and the *pilots* of London taking part in the election of the king. It further appears that the title of liverymen or *pilots* was assumed by them from the maritime ascendancy which they enjoyed. Harold held the sovereignty but a very short time. His half-brother, Hardicanute, was making great preparations for asserting his right to the throne, when commissioners from the nobility and the citizens of London waited upon him at Bruges, announcing the death of Harold, and inviting his acceptance of the crown. He immediately repaired to England ; but one of the first acts of his authority after his coronation was marked with such brutality that the affections of his subjects were completely alienated from him. He ordered the body of Harold to be exhumed, his head to

be cut off, and both to be thrown into the Thames. Tradition adds, that the body was taken up in a net by some fishermen, who interred it in a church just outside of Temple-Bar, and which to this day is known by the name of St. Clement the Dane. Hardicanute only reigned two years, dying at the nuptials of a Danish lord. His intemperate habits were such that his death, in 1042, excited neither surprise nor regret.

Edward, surnamed the Confessor, was now invited to assume the reins of government. Unhappily, however, he had been brought up in Normandy, and hence addicted to customs and practices disagreeable to his English subjects. He had, also, drunk deeply into that spirit of enthusiasm which disgraced the age in which he lived. He possessed many amiable qualities, yet must be pronounced a weak and superstitious prince. Norman manners were introduced at court, and the French language became almost paramount. Feuds and factions soon arose which required greater energy to suppress than the king possessed. Earl Godwin, a powerful English nobleman, was charged with disloyalty towards his sovereign. The earl was accordingly summoned to meet a convention of the nobles which met first at Gloucester, and then at London ; but to neither of these places did he think proper to repair ; and he was banished the kingdom by proclamation. Nothing daunted by this procedure, the powerful *thane* entered the Thames with a powerful fleet and army as high as Southwark, and prevailed upon the Londoners to espouse his cause. The king prepared to give him battle, when a compromise was wisely proposed, and the shedding of English blood hereby saved. Godwin agreed to disarm on condition that all his honours and estates should be restored to him ; and, also, that the king should dismiss all foreigners

from places of trust or profit both in *church* and *state*. Thus early did our forefathers give unequivocal proof that both ecclesiastical and civil polity required to be under some popular control. *William*, Bishop of London, though a foreigner, was so beloved by his flock, that intercession was made with the king for his recall and restoration to his *see*. This so endeared the Londoners to the affections of this venerable prelate, that when William the Norman conquered England, he obtained from the Conqueror a confirmation of all the ancient privileges of the city.

Edward, during his exile from the throne of his ancestors, had made a vow that, in the event of his restoration, he would visit either the Holy Sepulchre at Jernusalem, or St. Peter's at Rome. The king, however, had the good sense to perceive that his absence from his country might be attended with disastrous consequences ; he determined, therefore, to apply to the pope for a *dispensation*, on condition of doing some religious act at home by way of commutation. This being granted, the king determined upon building a most splendid edifice upon the site of the Minster, on the island of Thorney, now in ruins. To this circumstance *Westminster Abbey* owes its existence. A *bull* being obtained from Pope Nicholas, in 1065, this magnificent structure was begun ; and, when finished, was consecrated with great solemnity in the presence of the king, the nobility, and a general assembly of the clergy. The church was built in the form of a cross, and, in the opinion of Spelman, “ was not paralleled in that age for august majesty or excellent contrivance of the building.” It was dedicated to St. Peter.

We cannot withhold a short extract from this extraordinary document, or *bull*. “ Therefore,” says the Pope, “ by the

authority of God and his holy apostles, and this Roman see, and our own, We grant, permit, and most solidly confirm, that hereafter for ever it be the place of the king's constitution, or coronation, and consecration; the repository of the royal crown and ensigns of majesty, and a perpetual habitation of monks."

A large and beautiful college was also built during this reign, by the name of St. Martin's-le-Grand, for a dean and secular canons. In after-times this endowment became distinguished, charters having been granted to it by William I. and several of his successors.

King Edward, in a statute which he passed towards the end of his reign, well describes the state of London at that period. He acknowledges the pre-eminence of London over all his cities, compares it to ancient Troy, confirms to it all its ancient customs and usages so as not to be violated by his successors, and particularly grants the privilege of holding and keeping *hustings* once a week.

Scarcely had the King completed his favourite Abbey-church, when he was taken ill, and died, after a very short illness, January 5th, 1066. Edward was the last of the Saxon line. He was buried, according to his own orders, in the newly-erected church of St. Peter. Edward was the first who touched for the *king's evil*, the opinion of his sanctity procuring belief to this cure among the people. Such a practice even in superstitious times seems extraordinary; but that it should have been continued until the accession of the House of Hanover, is hardly credible.

The death of the Confessor was so sudden that no care had been taken for the settlement of the throne. William, Duke of Normandy, however, by the will of Edward, had

been declared his successor; but in times like the present that was very insufficient. Harold, son of the turbulent Godwin, two days after the death of the king, was crowned and anointed by Aldred, Archbishop of York. In this enterprise, Harold, besides the influence which his family exerted over the people, was mainly assisted by the bishops and clergy, who were not yet the vassals of Rome, and by the inhabitants of London. He was, it must be confessed, eminently fitted for the distinguished rank which he now assumed, and for which he had long been preparing. Inured to arms from his earliest youth, he possessed great personal courage, and was likewise confidently looked up to as a leader by the resolute bands which attended him. Indeed, but for a combination of untoward circumstances, it appeared almost certain that he would have proved the first of a new dynasty of kings. The right of Edgar Atheling, nephew of the Confessor, to the crown, was scarcely mentioned, and William, Duke of Normandy, the other claimant, was equally overlooked.

But storms were already gathering, which were presently to burst upon the unfortunate Harold. His own brother, Tofti, having been expelled the kingdom for misrule, had for some time been preparing troops for making a descent upon England; and just at this moment he entered the Humber with a fleet and army, and laid siege to York. Harold gave him battle, and his army being completely routed, was obliged to re-embark. Tofti himself and many other leaders were slain. Scarcely was this army discomfited when danger still greater claimed the anxious attention of the newly-created king.

William, Duke of Normandy, had long directed his

energies towards England. Edward the Confessor, it was believed, had named him his heir ; Harold, also, when in Normandy had taken an oath to espouse his cause. The court of William at this period was one of the most splendid in Europe, and a large number of Normans and of the best families, deeply imbrued with the spirit of bigotry and chivalry, were his retainers, and prepared to second him in any ambitious project. William was further encouraged by a *spiritual* agency : Pope Alexander II., having denounced Harold for perjury, encouraged the daring enterprise of the Norman invader. Harold, nothing daunted, hastened to take the field, accompanied by his two brothers and numerous partisans. The *militia* of London and Westminster were commanded by him in person. The two contending armies met near Hastings, in Sussex. William began the attack, which at first made no impression on the troops of Harold, and victory for a great part of the day remained doubtful. William, however, towards the close of the day, feigning to retreat, threw the enemy off their guard, and produced a partial defeat. Harold was urging on his troops with redoubled energy, when an arrow entered his brain through one of his eyes, and he instantly fell dead to the ground. His brothers likewise being slain, a complete rout followed. Morcar and Edwin, the Queen's brothers, escaped by favour of the night, and came to London. This memorable battle was fought on the 14th of October, 1066. The conqueror refused to deliver up the dead body of the king, even at the entreaty of his mother ; but when ordering it to be buried on the beach he sarcastically said, "He kept the coast so well while alive, let him continue to do so now

he is dead." This battle is one of the most memorable in the history of our country, and necessarily produced the most important results.

LONDON FROM THE TIME OF WILLIAM
THE CONQUEROR,
TO THE REIGN OF HENRY IV.

NOTWITHSTANDING the decisive nature of the battle of Hastings, William soon found that his conquest was far from being complete. The wreck of Harold's army had retreated to London, telling their tale of woe to an astonished people. The Londoners had always warmly espoused the cause of their favourite, but now defeated, monarch. He was a native prince, and himself and his people had sentiments and associations of one common character. William, on the contrary, was a foreigner, and was associated with those who in the judgment of the English were frivolous and proud. The Normans were certainly much in advance of the English in the arts and the refinements of life, but not in personal strength or courage. Resistance, therefore, might reasonably be expected. A council was held in London of the nobility, clergy, and citizens, over which Aldred, Archbishop of York, presided. He recommended that Edgar Atheling, as true heir to the throne, should forthwith be crowned, in which opinion he was warmly supported by the Londoners and the officers of the English navy. But there was a want of unanimity. The queen's

brothers themselves aspired to the throne, and Edgar was believed to be incapable of directing the affairs of the nation in its present distracted state. The country was hereby rendered inactive, and time given to the Conqueror to complete his purpose.

William, although instantly on the move, approached London not without caution ; and on his way thither was reminded, in very plain terms, of what he might expect from the people. William Thorne, a benedictine friar, in his *Chronicles*, gives the following account :—“ After the battle of Hastings, Archbishop Stigand and Egelsius, Abbot of St. Augustine’s, summoned a general meeting of the county of Kent, and brought them to a resolution rather to *lose their lives than their liberties*, and marched at their head to oppose the progress of the invader, with boughs in their hats, that gave them the appearance of a moving wood ; which so surprised Duke William that he desired a parley, at which the Archbishop and Abbot delivered themselves to this purpose :—‘ Sir, the Kentish men are your friends, and are willing to be your subjects too, provided your highness will be pleased to allow them reasonable terms ; for, to deal clearly, they are people *born to liberty*, and therefore *are resolved to preserve the laws and customs of their country*. Slavery is a thing they are perfect strangers unto ; neither are they willing to submit to any abatements of privilege. For, though they can relish kingly government well enough, yet *absolute and arbitrary rule* is a thing they can never digest. The Kentish men are, therefore, ready to submit to your highness, if you please to receive them on the foot of the constitution. But they had rather run the risk of a

battle and lose their lives in the field, *than give up their liberties* and live under the oppression of an arbitrary government. For though the rest of the English should stoop to servitude, yet liberty will always be the choice of Kent."

London at this time was strongly fortified. A bridge also had been thrown over the Thames, which effectually protected the city from any surprise from ships. The population of the city was also greater than any other, exceeding, it is believed, ten thousand. The whole male population were trained to arms: they were, likewise, expert seamen; many of them had become ennobled in consequence of a law made by Athelstan, that every merchant who had made three foreign voyages, in his own ships, should be entitled to the quality of a *thane*, or nobleman. This probably led to the pre-eminent title of *seamen of London*. William, therefore, gave proof of his discretion in making no rash attempt upon the great city. He approached to *Southwark*; but the Londoners, sallying out, attacked his army with great impetuosity. He steadily repulsed them, and compelled them to retire within their ramparts. His indignation was evinced by the reduction of Southwark to ashes. He, however, withdrew his army from the neighbourhood of the city, not even attempting to pass the Thames, but, taking a western direction, came to the town of Wallingford, in Berkshire.

In the meantime the city of London, now almost the representative of the whole kingdom, was distracted by internal divisions. Morcar and Edwin, the Queen's brothers, had continued to assert their claims to the crown; but in which the Londoners not concurring, they retired from the city. Edgar had already gone to the Duke's camp, and

submitted to him. The clergy, particularly William, Bishop of London, used their utmost influence with the people for effecting the same thing ; and at length it was agreed that the magistrates and principal citizens should repair to the Conqueror. He had crossed the Thames at Wallingford, and had proceeded to Berkhamstead. Here the keys of the city were tendered him, with an expressed desire that he would be pleased to accept the crown ; making it, however, a condition that they should enjoy their ancient laws and customs. William, well versed in the art of dissimulation, affected to decline the proffered crown ; but upon being again urged so to do, he consented. The Conqueror having obtained his end, immediately set out for London, and was crowned in Westminster-Abbey, upon Christmas-day, 1066, by Aldred, Archbishop of York, being also attended by the principal nobles, both Norman and English. But jealousy and suspicion mutually possessed the mind both of the new sovereign and his subjects. Even during the solemnities of the coronation some misunderstanding arose, the Norman soldiery making an attack upon the assembled populace, and setting fire to some of the adjacent houses. The affray became so serious that the influence of William himself was scarcely sufficient to suppress it.

The country now following the example of London, submitted to the Conqueror ; and the king having retired to Barking, in Essex, many of the nobles repaired thither, and took the oath of *fealty*. Amongst this number were Morcar and Edwin, the Earls of Northumberland and Mercia.

Notwithstanding this apparent cordiality, the King was

but too sensible that the fidelity of his new subjects was not to be depended upon. He also greatly suspected the loyalty of the Londoners; and since he determined to reside in the city, he took care to protect himself in the best manner possible. He accordingly enlarged and fortified the Tower, and garrisoned it with the best of his Norman troops. William having thus secured the conquest of the kingdom, proceeded towards its more regular administration. A strict execution of justice at this time everywhere prevailed. The army he also governed with severe discipline; and appeared solicitous of uniting the Normans and English by intermarriages and alliances. He confirmed the liberties and immunities of London and other cities, and replaced everything on their ancient establishment. The king, however, took care to place all real power in the hands of his Normans, and still to keep possession of the sword. He disarmed the city of London, in common with other places, and required that no one should be seen in the streets after the tolling of the *curfew* bell. A firm government always operates favourably upon a turbulent people. The arts of peace gradually returned, and the citizens of London, although placed under great restraint, found their property secure, and their trade flourishing. During this state of quiet William determined upon visiting his Norman dominions, leaving the administration of public affairs during his absence, in the hands of his uterine brother Odo, Bishop of Bayeux, and William Fitz-Osborne, Earl of Hereford.

Whatever might have been William's motives for leaving a warlike and half-subdued people, certain it is that its results were permanently disastrous. Mutual jealousies and

animosities between the English and the Normans every-where prevailed, which the lapse of many years could scarcely appease. The return of the king, and his vigorous mea-sures, stifled all conspiracies for a time; but henceforth his English subjects were regarded and treated as inveterate and irreclaimable enemies. Whether the Londoners had remained peaceful during this ferment, is perhaps doubtful; William, however, thought it prudent to grant a charter of privileges to the citizens of London. This document was written in Saxon, but without any date annexed to it. From other circumstances, it must have been given before the year 1675. This charter is too important not to be inserted. It runs thus:—“William the king salutes William the bishop,” (of London,) “and Godfrey the *portreve*, and all the burgesses within London, both French and English. And I declare that I grant you to be all *law-worthy*, as you were in the days of king Edward: and I grant that every child shall be *his father's heir*, after his father's days: and I will not suffer any person to do you wrong. God keep you.” On this laconic, but important charter, it may be necessary in explanation to remark, that by being *law-worthy* is meant the privilege of being so far free as to possess the full benefit of the law, without any liability to any feudal lord; and further, that being free themselves, the privilege should descend as a matter of right to their children, or heirs. This was no new privilege, the burgesses of London and other places having received this right by the laws of Edward the Confessor: the charter therefore obtained by the mediation of William, Bishop of London, and Godfrey, the *portreve*, was but the confirmation of former privileges.

During the year last mentioned, a national council of bishops and abbots was convened at London. It was then ordained that each bishop should rank according to the priority of his consecration, with certain exceptions. The Archbishop of Canterbury presided ; his right hand was assigned to the Archbishop of York, the Bishop of London on his left, and the Bishop of Winchester next to the Archbishop of York. It is remarkable that William would never suffer the Pope to interfere in the appointment of bishops, although the king had come to England with the express sanction of the Roman pontiff. His vigorous mind perceived the mischief consequent upon such an exercise of foreign power. His own supremacy in the church was ever paramount.

In the same year William, Bishop of London, died. He was so highly esteemed that the Londoners had him sumptuously entombed in St. Paul's cathedral, and instituted a solemn anniversary, that the magistrates and citizens of London might go in procession to his tomb and pray for the repose of his soul.

Hugo de Orivalle was promoted to the see of London, being reputedly a person of great abilities. He was joined in commission with Aldred, Archbishop of York, who, with the assistance of twelve suitable persons in each county, were to search for a body of the old laws of England, called the *laws of St. Edward the Confessor*. The two prelates received the reports of these individuals in writing, and on oath.

A calamitous fire broke out in London in 1077, which consumed a great part of the city ; and in 1086, when

London had scarcely risen from its ashes, another fire happened, which, beginning at Ludgate, ravaged the greatest and most opulent part of the city—the western part. In this conflagration the cathedral church was burnt down. Maurice, then Bishop of London, assisted by the court and the citizens, built a more magnificent structure than had ever before been applied to the purposes of devotion in any part of England. William had previously made additions to the Tower, building that part of it still known as the *white tower*. This was done under the inspection of *Ingulphus*, Bishop of Rochester, reputedly the greatest architect of his age. The parish church at St. Mary-le-Bow was also built toward the latter part of this reign.

All the great civil offices of state were already filled by foreigners. The dignified clergy likewise were selected from the Norman partisans of the Conqueror. This tended very much to strengthen the papacy in this country. William had already consented to receive a *legate* from Rome, and by whom, with the king's concurrence, some of the English clergy were deposed and otherwise punished; amongst whom was Stigand, the metropolitan. Aldred, Archbishop of York, had died a little before of grief and vexation, leaving his *malediction* upon the sovereign for his breach of the coronation oath. The spiritual and civil authority of the Popes had for ages been increasing, when the *power of the keys* was committed to Gregory VII., that imperious and enterprising successor of Saint Peter. Nearly the whole of Christendom had already succumbed to him; and the potent and haughty *Norman* was not to be overlooked. The pontiff wrote to him, requiring him to fulfil his promise in doing

homage for the kingdom of England to the see of Rome, and to send him over that *tribute* which all his predecessors had been accustomed to pay to the *vicar* of Christ. William replied that *the money* should be paid, but that he had neither promised to do homage to the Roman pontiff, nor was it in the least his purpose to impose that servitude on his *state*. He gave the proud pontiff an immediate proof of his sincerity by refusing his permission to the bishops to attend a council which the Pope had summoned. Moreover when Odo, his half-brother, was suspected of treason, he confined him in prison until his death, although, as a prelate, his person, according to the superstition of the times, was regarded sacred ; and though Pope Gregory employed the utmost of his authority to procure his release, it was without effect. The king to a certain extent yielded to the bigotry which prevailed ; yet perceiving, as by intuition, the mischievous tendencies of spiritual despotism, he resolutely maintained his own supremacy. He prohibited his subjects from acknowledging any one for Pope whom he himself had not previously received ; all ecclesiastical canons were ratified by his authority before having any effect ; bulls and letters from Rome were null and void without his sanction, and none of his subjects were liable to spiritual censures without his consent. Even in the celibacy of the clergy, William disregarded the orders of the Pope. Hitherto the clergy of the Church of England had been accustomed to marry. At the instigation of the Roman pontiff, the king permitted a synod to be held, which ultimately determined that no clergyman, in future, should be ordained *without a promise of celibacy* ; but that those already married, the members of

collegiate churches only excepted, should not *be obliged to separate from their wives.*

Another memorable event in connexion with this period requires special notice, and demonstrates the extent of the king's genius, and in the highest degree does honour to his memory. He made a general survey of all the lands in the kingdom, their extent in each district, their proprietors, tenures, and value; the quantity of meadow, pasture, wood, and arable land which they contained; and, to a certain extent, the number of tenants, cottagers, and slaves, of all denominations. This great work required six years to complete, and was called the *Domesday-book*. It is still preserved in the *Exchequer* office, and is, undoubtedly, the most valuable piece of antiquity possessed by any nation.

A conquered country is sure to bear the impress of its conqueror. This was eminently the case in the Norman conquest. William's great object always was, particularly during the latter part of his reign, to give everything British a new aspect. The French language became fashionable at court; the laws were composed and deeds drawn up in the same idiom; the public pleadings of the courts were also in Norman-French. William even carried on a crusade against the English language itself, ordering that the youth at school throughout the kingdom should be instructed only in the French language. The English themselves, also, to flatter their sovereign, affected to excel in that foreign dialect. The pastimes of the people were likewise much altered. Hunting, hawking, and military display superseding the ruder arts of wrestling, slinging, the use of the bow, the club, and the buckler. The sedative pastimes were back-

gammon, chess, and dice. An infatuation prevailed in reference to the latter amusement, which seems scarcely credible. Many would risk their whole fortune, or stake their personal liberty on the turn of the die, giving the winner the option of selling the loser as a slave. The Normans confirmed the conquered in the latter practices; but gave to their athletic exercises a more romantic and chivalrous character.

The citizens and yeomen of London were soon attracted by exhibitions of *jousts* and *tournaments*; and the young men, especially, sought to excel in various attacks and evolutions on horseback.

Costly armour, emblazoned shields, and heavy but curiously wrought lances became the fashion of the times. Restrictions were also introduced in the chase. William was passionately fond of hunting. New laws were in consequence enacted, prohibiting his subjects from hunting in particular localities, and punishing the killing of a deer, a boar, or a hare with the loss of the delinquent's eyes. Thus miserably had our unhappy country become enslaved!

But the career of the Conqueror had now come to an end. He died in 1087, and his son *William*, surnamed *Rufus*, in the absence of his elder brother, Robert, assumed the royal authority, and was crowned by Archbishop Lanfranc. One circumstance connected with the period at which we have now arrived is too curious to be passed over in silence. Amongst the retainers of William the Conqueror were a number of Jews, natives of Rouen, who were among the first to land on the shores of England. There is no reason to believe that they embarked with him as soldiers, but

merely as adventurers. It is, however, certain that the Jews were in some way or other mixed up with the Conqueror's financial arrangements; and that the use which William made of them in this respect led to their ultimate settlement in London, and in that locality still known as the Old Jewry. Not that this singular and interesting people were quite unknown in England prior to this time. They are mentioned, incidentally, in the reign of Ethelwolf; Ecgbriht, Archbishop of York, forbidding "any Christian to be present at the Jewish feasts;" and in one of the laws of Edward the Confessor it is declared, "that the Jews, and all theirs, belong to the king." William Rufus, not perhaps from the purest motives, became their patron, and not being very particular in ecclesiastical matters, the Jews, by means of large presents, gained his consent to permit controversies to take place between the rabbies and the bishops; the king having sworn, it is said, by the face of St. Luke, that if the Jews gained the victory, he would be a convert to their faith. These discussions took place in London, and, as was to be expected, were declared in favour of the Christians. The historian, Stow, adds:—"That this wickedness of the king in permitting the controversy was followed with such dreadful claps of thunder, and so violent an earthquake, as was scarcely ever felt in England before." We leave the belief of this to the discretion of our readers.

The Jews, during the reign of Rufus, became numerous and wealthy. At Oxford, so many houses belonged to them that the students were obliged to become their tenants. Three public *hostels*, or places for learning, were named after them, viz.—Lombard Hall, Moses Hall, and Jacob Hall; the

parishes of St. Martin, St. Edward, and St. Aldgate were denominated the New and Old Jewry ; the rabbies also kept public schools for teaching the Hebrew language.

In consequence of the king's indulgence, the Jews became so insolent as to defy even the power of *the church*. In a manuscript preserved in the Bodleian Library at Oxford, and written by Philip, Prior of St. Frideswide, in his life of that saint, we are assured :—“That a certain young Jew of Oxford, called Eum Prescat, the son of Mossey, of Wallingford, was so impudent as to laugh at her votaries, and tell them that he could cure their infirmities as well as the saint herself. Frideswide, no longer able to suffer his insolence, so operated upon him, that he suddenly ran distracted into his father's kitchen, and hanged himself in his own girdle. Upon which he was, according to custom, conveyed to London in a cart, all the dogs in the city following his detested corps, and yelping in a most frightful manner.” The *Jew*, our readers will admit, might have been the greater knave, but certainly *Philip*, the prior, was the greater liar.

The chronicler Holinshed, tells another extraordinary story of the Jews, proving at once the mercenary character of the king, and the singular nature of the times. On one occasion, divers Jews came to him, complaining that several of their brethren had renounced Judaism, and were become Christians, and besought him, for a sum of money, to constrain them to abjure Christianity, and turn to the Jewish law again. He consented to do so, and on receiving the money agreed upon, summoned the parties before him, and, partly by persuasion and partly by fear, induced several to renounce Christianity, and return to their former belief.

Upon this, the father of one Stephen, a Jew converted to the Christian faith, being sore troubled that his son was turned Christian, and hearing what the king had done in such matters, presented to him sixty marks of silver, on condition that he would enforce his son to return to the Jewish religion. Whereupon the young man was brought before the king, to whom the king said, “Sirrah ! thy father here complaineth, that, without his license, thou art become a Christian ; if this be true, I command thee again to return to the religion of thy nation, without any more ado.” To whom the young man answered, “Your grace, as I guess, *doth but jest.*” Wherewith the king, being moved, said, “What ! thou *dunghill knave*, should I jest with thee ? Get thee hence quickly, and fulfil my commandment, or, by St. Luke’s face, I will cause thine eyes to be plucked out of thy head. The young man, nothing abashed hereat, with a constant voice, answered : “Truly, I will not do it ; but know for certain, that if you were a good Christian, you would never have uttered such words ; for it is the part of a Christian to reduce them again to Christ which are departed from him, and not to separate them from him which are joined to him by faith.”

The king herewith confounded, commanded the Jew to get him out of his sight. But the father, perceiving that the king could not persuade his son to forsake the Christian faith, required to have his money again. To whom the king said, “He had done so much as he had promised to do ; that was, to persuade him so far as he might.” At length, when he would have had the king deal further in the matter, the

king, to stop his mouth, tendered back to him the half of his money, and kept the other himself.

These extracts may appear long ; but from their interesting character, we are persuaded that our readers will be pleased with them. But even at this very time the privileges of the Jewish people were much contracted. They had only one burial-place in the kingdom, a large spot of ground without the walls of London, in the parish of St. Giles, Cripplegate, called in ancient deeds, *the Jew's Garden*, and which afterwards was covered by houses, and denominated *Jewin-street* ; to this place alone were the Jews compelled to carry their dead from every part of the kingdom. Never were any people more injured and oppressed than the Jewish nation. From the Babylonish captivity almost to the present hour the Jew may well take up the lament of the weeping prophet, and exclaim, “*Is it nothing to you, all ye that pass by? — behold, and see if there be any sorrow like unto my sorrow!*”

The reign of William Rufus proved short and inglorious, one calamitous event following another in quick succession. In the year 1090 London was visited by a hurricane, which did a great deal of mischief. Six hundred houses were blown down in the city ; the white square tower, built by William the Conqueror, was much injured ; and the roof of the new church of Mary-le-Bow was blown off with great violence, killing several persons by its fall. These calamities were followed by very heavy rains, which so increased the waters in the Thames, that London-Bridge, built no doubt of wood, was entirely carried away. Two years afterwards, a

destructive fire took place, which consumed a great part of the city; and which was followed by a general scarcity of grain and provisions.

In addition to all these fortuitous circumstances, the king occasioned considerable discontent by his thoughtless prodigality. Beside the expense necessarily incurred by the re-building of London Bridge, repairing the Tower, and making good other mischief which the tempest had caused, he imposed heavy taxes upon his people, together with toll and custom upon ships entering the river Thames, for the avowed purpose of encompassing the Tower of London with a strong wall; for building the church of St. Paul's; and, also, the erection of Westminster Hall as it now stands. And, as if the whole of this reign was to be replete with misery, in 1099, the very year in which William Rufus perished by an arrow accidentally glancing from a tree, which had been shot at a stag, the Thames rose to such a height, that the extensive estates of Earl Goodwin became permanently submerged by the sea, forming a sand-bank, which continues a terror to sailors to the present time.

William Rufus, during his whole reign, was in opposition to the clergy, who, on their part, appeared bent on making the church independent both of the crown and the state. It is, therefore, no wonder if their account of him be somewhat exaggerated. Certain, however, it is, that there was little to regret in his death.

Henry I., surnamed Beau-clerc, from his reputation as a scholar, succeeded to the throne, although his elder brother Robert was living, but at this time absent. He was a prince of great vigour both of body and mind. His

personal courage was well known ; and his prudence and knowledge were also acknowledged. He was in the prime of life at the time of his accession. His subjects, he well knew, were divided into parties, the Anglo-Saxons and Normans having never amalgamated. In the administration of justice he was firm, but despotic ; and, like his father, William I., determined, from the beginning of his reign, at all hazards, to maintain his prerogative. His first act was to seize the royal treasure at Winchester, and proceed without a moment's delay to his coronation. He was accordingly crowned in Westminster Abbey, by Maurice, Bishop of London.

Amongst the first acts of his reign was one highly pleasing and advantageous to the inhabitants of London, that of confirming their ancient customs and immunities, and granting them various new privileges by royal charter. This important document seems to have been the first step towards rendering London a corporation. By it the city was empowered to farm Middlesex for three hundred pounds a year, to elect its own *sheriff* and *justiciary*, and to hold pleas of the crown ; it was further exempted from *scot and lot*, from *danegeilt*, trials by *wager of battle*, and lodging the king's domestics. The privilege of holding their court of hustings every week, wardmotes, and common-halls were also confirmed. The right of hunting in Middlesex and Surrey, and various other rights, were either given or confirmed.

Such a charter infused new life into the citizens of London ; and those trades which had only been maintained by prescription, were now established into *guilds* and fraternities. The king still reserved to himself the appointment of a

portreve, or chief city magistrate. These immunities greatly tended to secure the affection of the Londoners to the king, especially among those who were of Anglo-Saxon descent, since by them they were protected from much of that insolence which the Normans had assumed over their fellow-subjects.

Indeed, the licentiousness of the Normans had carried them into such excesses, that those who had followed the late king in his progress through the country, thought themselves at liberty to harass and plunder the native inhabitants at pleasure ; and these outrages were carried to such an extent, that what they could not eat and drink themselves, they either sold for their own benefit, or wantonly destroyed. The king determined, very properly, to put a stop to these outrages, and accordingly issued a proclamation at London commanding, “That henceforth, all persons who should be convicted of any of the said barbarities should have their eyes pulled out, or their hands, or feet, or some other member cut off, as the ministers of justice should think fit.” These severe measures had the desired effect in restraining the Normans.

The king likewise received additional confirmation in his government by the prudent marriage which he made. Maud, or Matilda, was the daughter of Malcolm III., king of Scotland, and niece to Edgar Atheling. On the death of her father she was brought to England and educated by her aunt Christina. This princess, allied as she was to the Saxon line of kings, Henry determined to marry. One difficulty, however, presented itself: this illustrious personage had already taken the veil in the nunnery of Rumsey, and consequently expressed some reluctance to comply with the wishes

of the king. But with princes and a *pliant* church, few difficulties would prove insuperable. Anselm, Archbishop of Canterbury, had previously returned from the Continent, at the king's invitation, but had refused to do homage conformably to ancient practice. This Henry had determined to resent, if not to punish; but it being now necessary to become a suitor to the church, the king felt the necessity of dissimulation. Anselm was applied to, who summoned a council of prelates and nobles at Lambeth, for investigating the subject of the king's marriage. The lady alleged that she had put on the veil, not so much with a view of entering into a religious life, as to protect her chastity from the violence of the Normans. This reason was pronounced to be valid, and the princess declared free to marry. In consequence of this decision her espousals with the king were celebrated by the prelate Anselm and with great pomp. Although the English had shown no particular respect for the descendants of their former kings, yet, having been so oppressed under the Norman dynasty, they were greatly pleased that the king's choice had fallen upon a native princess. Henry himself was the more acceptable to the English from his having been born amongst them.

All these propitious circumstances enabled Henry, without much difficulty, to surmount those dangers with which he was threatened by his brother Robert; and which, partly by the vigorous proceedings of Henry, and partly by the procrastination of Robert, ended in the total defeat of the forces of the latter, together with the loss of his personal liberty.

The beginning of Henry's reign was also memorable for

great plenty. Corn which cost but a shilling would suffice a hundred persons for a day ; fourpence would purchase as much hay and corn as would maintain twenty horses for a day ; the price of a good sheep was a groat.

All political events promised to go on successfully, and the king appeared happy in his marriage with Matilda, who was a woman of prudence and religion, and probably possessed considerable influence over the king. But Henry, like his renowned ancestor, William the Conqueror, always looked with a jealous eye on the encroachments of an ambitious clergy, ever seeking to become independent of the king, and dependent only on the Roman pontiff. The thunders of the Vatican were scorned, whenever the king's political affairs were in a condition to allow him so to do ; but at other times he was obliged to succumb to the dictation of his spiritual task-master at Rome. Promises, engagements, and even oaths were mutually given and received, only to be violated when opportunity served.

The first dispute between Henry and the Roman pontiff, was on the right of investiture ; the king pleading the right which he had derived from his predecessors of presenting bishops to their respective sees, and receiving their accustomed homage. Anselm on his return to England refused this ; and an appeal was made to Rome. Henry's messenger to Pope Pascal met with an absolute refusal to the king's demands. His holiness quoted Scripture, and alleged, "that, Christ being the door, all ecclesiastics must enter into the church through him alone, not through the civil magistrate, or any profane layman!" Henry, although he might be convinced by the force of such cogent church-logic, yet

determined not to concede the point. Letters passed between them; and at length an ambassador was sent to urge the matter more strongly upon the unbending pontiff. "The king, my master," said the envoy, "would rather lose his crown than part with the right of granting investitures." "And I," replied the pope, "would rather lose my head, than allow him to retain it." But the law of expediency is of no modern origin. Nowhere is it better understood than at Rome. Henry had alike quieted his political antagonists in England and on the Continent, and the matter in question was, therefore, ultimately compromised. Henry agreed, for the present, to resign his right of granting investitures, by which the spiritual dignity was supposed to be conferred; and the Roman pontiff allowed the bishops to do homage for their temporal privileges. The prelates, also, who had received investitures from the crown were permitted to communicate with their metropolitan. A plenary power was likewise granted to Anselm to remedy other disorders which the pope said might arise from the barbarism of the country. Such was the idea. the Roman pontiff then entertained of the English!

Archbishop Anselm, in 1102, held a national synod in the abbey church of Westminster, consisting of the clergy and temporal peers, the king's consent having been first obtained. Its principal object was to enact divers canons for the regulation and better government of the clergy. Simony was condemned; and several abbots who had purchased their dignities with money were deposed. Celibacy was enjoined upon the clergy; and married priests were forbidden to perform the functions of their office. The children

of priests were not allowed to succeed to their father's churches by way of inheritance. The *tonsure*, or shaving of the crown of the head, was likewise enjoined upon clergymen. Some of these regulations, particularly that of enforcing the celibacy of the clergy, were ungraciously received, and passed rather by the connivance than the permission of the king. Six years after this another synod, or council, was held in London, when it was decreed, "that those priests, deacons, or sub-deacons, who had cohabited with their wives, or married since the late synod at London, should immediately put them away, nor suffer them to visit their houses, or meet them elsewhere, or suffer them to reside upon any of the demesnes of the church."

Henry for some time successfully opposed the admission of a legate from Rome, possessed as such a dignitary was with great and extraordinary power; being, in fact, the vicar or representative of the pope himself. But in 1116, when the king's affairs were in an embarrassed state, Cardinal de Crema arrived in England with a legatine commission, to which the king thought it prudent to submit. A synod was convoked in London, when a vote passed enacting severe penalties on the marriages of the clergy. The cardinal declared it an unpardonable enormity that a priest should dare to consecrate and touch the body of Christ immediately after he had risen from the side of a *strumpet*, that being the decent appellation given to the wives of the clergy. But it happened that the very next night the officers of justice, breaking into a disorderly house, found the *chaste* cardinal in bed with a courtezan; an incident which threw such ridi-

cule upon him, that he immediately stole out of the kingdom : the synod broke up, and the canons fell into contempt. No collect surely could be more appropriate than that introduced into the litany of the church of England by Edward VI.— “ *From the Bishop of Rome, and all his detestable enormities, good Lord, deliver us !* ”

Towards the latter part of this reign many buildings were erected and endowed in London for religious purposes. About 1018, Alwin Child, a citizen of London, founded a monastery for Cluniac monks at Bermondsey, dedicated to St. Saviour. Alfune built the parish church of St. Giles, Cripplegate. Rahere, a gentleman of reputed wit, being the king’s *minstrel*, founded the Priory of St. Bartholomew, West Smithfield, for canons of St. Augustin, becoming himself the first prior. To this monastery was annexed an hospital for sick and infirm people. Privileges and immunities were also obtained for this establishment, and amongst others, the right of holding a fair in Smithfield for three days. At this time Smithfield was a general receptacle for the filth of the city, and the place for public execution ; memorable also, a few centuries later, as the place of martyrdom for the confessors of Christ’s holy Gospel.

A nunnery was about the same time founded by Jordan Bliset, on the northern side of London, near a place called Clerk’s-well, now known as Clerkenwell. This priory occupied fourteen acres of land, and was dedicated to the honour of God, and the *assumption of our lady*, for Benedictine nuns. It was afterwards amply endowed by Richard Beauveyes, bishop of London, with certain lands at Muswell Hill. The same

Jordan Bliset founded another house adjoining this nunnery, by the name of the Priory of St. John at Jerusalem, for the *Knights Templars*.

Maud, or Matilda, the queen-consort, had greatly endeared herself with the native English. Her general demeanour towards the people was most praiseworthy, often tempering the king's violence by her prudent counsels and restraints; she was, moreover, deeply imbued with the reigning superstition of the times. She built an hospital for *lepers*, with a fraternity of our *blessed lady*, *Corpus Christi*, or the body of Christ, and St. Giles.

At this hospital it became the custom to present malefactors carried to execution at Tyburn with a great bowl of ale, to drink of it as they pleased for their last refreshment in this life. She also endowed another hospital for providing poor maimed people with food and clothing, near the northern gate of the city, since designated Cripplegate. Queen Maud was likewise the foundress of a priory for canons regular near Aldgate, dedicated to the Holy Trinity, the district belonging to it being called Holy Cross, or Holy Rood. This priory occupied the site now known as Duke's-place. A charter was obtained for it from the king, and it was made free from subjection to any other person or church, the bishop of London, and St. Paul's church only excepted. Her majesty likewise appointed the prior, and gave to him and the canons the eastern gate of the city, called Aldgate, with the *soke* or district, thereunto belonging, with all the customs, and two parts of the revenues and rents of the city of Exeter. It was further endowed by certain burgesses of London, the descendants of the thirteen knights to whom King Edgar

granted this *soke*, by their giving the same to the canons of the Holy Trinity, or Trinity Christ Church, then newly founded by the queen. This district of London, from being the property of the knights, was anciently called *Knighten Guild*, but now known by the name of Portsoken ward. The union of the church of St. Botolph's without, Aldgate, and the chapels of St. Catherine, now St. Catherine Cree-Church, and St. Michael's, at the eastern extremity of Leadenhall and Fenchurch-streets, with the Priory of the Holy Trinity, was approved and confirmed by a bull of Pope Innocent II., granted in the fourth year of his pontificate. The riches of this priory ultimately surpassed those of all other priories in London and Middlesex. The same queen endowed the church and hospital of St. Catherine, near the Tower.

Posterity are, moreover, indebted to this illustrious princess for the foundation of Bow and Channelsea-bridges. She likewise paved the way between these two bridges with gravel, and gave certain manors and a mill, called *Wyggon-mill*, to keep the said way and bridges in due repair.

Although the English had given no disturbance to the government for the last half-century, yet an inveterate prejudice against them seems constantly to have pervaded the king's mind. To serve his purpose, indeed, he sometimes boasted of his Anglican origin; but preferments of every kind, civil and ecclesiastical, were constantly withheld from the English. Henry granted them no favour, merely justice. His whole reign was prosperous. The accidental death of William, his only son, by drowning, at the age of eighteen, greatly afflicted him: he is said never to have been seen

to smile after that event. To his daughter Matilda, the wife of Geoffry Plantagenet, he was greatly attached; and whom he had long declared his heir. For insuring her succession to the throne, he had more than once summoned together the nobility, and required them to take the oath of fealty to her. He died when on a visit to Normandy, by eating too freely of lampreys, in the sixty-seventh year of his age, leaving to his beloved child Matilda all his dominions.

Succession to a throne must, amongst a rude and warlike people, be always a matter of considerable hazard and uncertainty. The late king died at Rouen, and his daughter, who was the rightful heir to the throne, was also abroad. Stephen, one of the younger sons of Adela, daughter of William the Conqueror, and by marriage Count of Boulogne, hastened to London, and laid claim to the vacant throne. During the late king's reign he was much at court, and had ingratiated himself with the inhabitants of London. His brother Henry, likewise, had been raised to the see of Winchester. Stephen had, indeed, been among the first of the barons to swear fealty to Matilda; but change of circumstances induced him to break through every engagement, however sacred, and get his claims recognized by the church. He, accordingly, first took possession of a large sum of money then in the exchequer, and next, through the mediation of his brother, and by perjury of every description, induced William, Archbishop of Canterbury, to place the crown upon his head. So little, at this period, was thought of lineal descent, and so much of the rite of coronation, that the monkish writers of those times never honoured a sovereign with the title of king until after he had been crowned.

The zeal of the Londoners in the cause of Stephen was such, that the king should have retained a grateful sense of his obligation to them. On the contrary, no sooner was he seated upon an usurped throne, than the inhabitants of London found, that if heretofore they had been punished with *whips*, the ungrateful Stephen would punish them with *scorpions*. He sought opportunities for seizing upon those immunities which his predecessors had granted, and loaded them with burdens of almost every kind. And, as if the elements of nature were ready further to chastise the citizens of London for what they had done, in the second year of the king's reign, a dreadful fire broke out in the vicinity of London-bridge, which totally consumed it, and destroyed the houses westward, as far as the church of St. Clement the Dane. This calamitous conflagration, according to Matthew of Westminster, took place in 1136. Three years only after this Stephen exacted from the citizens of London a hundred marks of silver for confirming the charter of Henry I., which gave the right of choosing their own sheriffs.

Stephen, with all his faults, was not destitute of courage, and the Londoners continued willing to serve him. An incursion was made into the northern counties of England by David, King of Scotland, and a great battle was fought in 1138, at Northallerton, called the battle of the *Standard*, from a high crucifix erected on a waggon, and carried along with the army. The Scots were defeated, which added considerably to the stability of the throne. But in consequence of various encroachments which the clergy had recently made, Stephen determined to suppress these innovations. The king's own brother, the Bishop of Winchester, now possessed *lega-*

tine authority, and the king was summoned to appear before a synod at Westminster. The prelates threatened an appeal to Rome. Stephen was disposed to settle the dispute by an appeal to force; but at this critical juncture, Matilda made a descent upon England, claiming her right to the throne of her ancestors. Robert, Earl of Gloucester, her bastard brother, headed her troops, being a man well trained to arms, and of great personal valour. From this invasion, combined with the disaffection of the barons, the whole country was thrown into a flame. A battle took place at Lincoln, where Stephen, after exerting both courage and skill, was defeated and taken prisoner. He was afterwards conducted to Gloucester, thrown into a dungeon, and loaded with irons.

But amid these sad and depressing reverses, his faithful friends at London did not forsake him. A great council of the barons and clergy was summoned to meet at Winchester, for the avowed purpose, as the Pope's legate, the Bishop of Winchester, declared, of supporting Matilda's claim and title to the crown, in which the whole council seemed to concur. The legate, however, who presided on this occasion, postponed coming to a final resolution until a deputation should arrive from London, which, he said, was expected in a day or two, under a safe conduct sent them for that purpose. Such appears to have been the importance of the city of London at this time, that the right of succession to the throne could not be settled without their concurrence.

On the arrival of the Londoners, contrary to the expectation of Matilda's party, they petitioned for Stephen's liberation, urging, that the barons, whom they represented, had earnestly desired the interest of the legate, the archbishop,

and all the clergy for that purpose. The legate averred that it was by no means reputable for the Londoners, who made so considerable a figure in the commonwealth, to take part with those barons who had deserted their general, advised his mal-administration, and treated Holy Church with contumely. Matilda's claims were accordingly acknowledged, and the whole kingdom, excepting Kent, submitted to her government. This happened in 1141; and soon after the city of London surrendered, and received their new sovereign with tokens of rejoicing.

No sooner was this settled, than Queen Matilda resolved to revenge herself. She granted to Geoffry, Earl of Essex, all the possessions which either himself or his ancestors had held of the crown, among which were the Tower of London, and the Sheriffwicks of London and Middlesex: he was, moreover, appointed justiciary of London and Middlesex, so that no one without his special permission could hold pleas either in the city or county, which was in direct opposition to the charter of King Henry.

The citizens of London tendered remonstrance after remonstrance to the queen; but instead of obtaining redress, she was imprudent enough to tell them plainly, that they were to expect no favour from her. This occasioned all her future troubles, the oppressed citizens determining to dethrone her should an opportunity present itself, and which occurred soon afterwards.

For in the following year, the queen of Stephen having petitioned for his deliverance from prison, on condition of his resigning the crown, and retiring into a convent, Matilda rejected the request with so much haughtiness, as to give

offence to the legate, in common with many others ; and he secretly instigated the citizens of London to revolt. An attempt was made to seize the person of Matilda, which was only prevented by her precipitous flight to Oxford. From hence the queen proceeded to Winchester : but the legate having joined the Londoners, she was closely besieged. At length famine coming on, Matilda effected her escape. Her brother, Earl Robert, was made prisoner. He was accepted as a ransom for King Stephen, who immediately on his release, by the powerful assistance of his brother, the legate, once more assumed the reins of government.

In 1151, Stephen convened a council at London, consisting of the bishops and barons of the realm. To them he proposed that his eldest son, Eustace, should be crowned as his successor. This was favourably received by the council ; but Theobald, archbishop of Canterbury, to whom the prescriptive right of coronation belonged, peremptorily refused. Neither could one of the bishops be prevailed upon, by promises or threatenings, to perform the solemnity. The archbishop to screen himself from his sovereign's resentment, retired to the continent. This extraordinary conduct in the prelates will be better understood, when it is recollected, that the power of the Roman pontiff within these realms, during these successive broils, had greatly increased ; that he had identified himself with the contrary party ; that the legatine authority had been transferred from William, Bishop of Winchester, to Theobald, Archbishop of Canterbury ; and that during these civil commotions, appeals to Rome, which had always been strictly prohibited by the laws of England, had become common in all ecclesiastical controversies. Of

such mischievous tendency is the spiritual supremacy of the Roman pontiff!

Henry, Matilda's son, grandson to Henry I., and rightful heir to the English crown, had now attained his majority : he had, moreover, obtained additional possessions on the continent, by his marriage with Eleanor, the divorced queen of Lewis VII., King of France. He determined upon invading England, and laying claim to the throne. The Londoners remained firm to Stephen. Each party had made great preparations for a decisive battle, when the great men on both sides, dreading a repetition of bloodshed, wisely interposed their good offices for bringing the matter in question to an amicable arrangement. This was further facilitated by the death of Eustace, Stephen's son, whilst these negotiations were pending. It was, therefore, ultimately agreed, that Stephen should possess the throne during his natural life, but that he should declare Henry his successor ; and also, that the barons should pay fealty to him, as their sovereign elect. This done, Henry retired to the continent. King Stephen, after a very short illness, died in the course of the next year.

Henry II. at his accession to the throne, was the greatest prince in Europe. By right of his father, Geoffry, surnamed Plantagenet, from a sprig of broom which he wore in his cap, Henry possessed Anjou and Touraine ; by his mother, Normandy and Maine ; by his wife, Eleanor, Guienne, Poitou, Saintogne, Auvergne, Perigord, Angoumois, and the Lamoinsin ; to which was afterwards added Brittany, forming together more than a third part of France. But although he was by his possessions so great a prince, and indued also

with superior powers of mind and body, yet being a foreigner, and much engaged in continental wars, he was, comparatively at least, but little connected with England in general, or with London in particular. This will account for the few incidents which occur in his history having an immediate reference to the metropolis.

Scarcely was the king in secure possession of the crown, than the citizens of London felt his resentment for their attachment to the late king. He obliged them to purchase those franchises, to which by ancient custom and the charter of Henry I. they were entitled. In 1158, being the fourth year of his reign, he demanded of London a free gift of £1043, and the next year, a further free gift of 1000 marks. At this time, probably, he gave a charter to the city, by which all the privileges granted by his grandfather were confirmed. Other rights were, likewise, conferred. The charter grants to the city acquittal of murder, or the fine imposed upon the hundred where murder had been committed, and which is expressed by the word *portsoken*. *Portsoken* then signified, not a particular ward, but an extent of jurisdiction, or liberty, from without the gates of the city. *Bridtol*, or toll for passing bridges; *jeresgive*, or a bribe extorted by the king's officers; *scot-ale*, or the obligation of frequenting ale-houses kept by the king's officers, to prevent informations against them; *childwite*, or a fine when a bondwoman became pregnant by a citizen, were likewise remitted. The king's charter ends with these memorable words: "Wherfore, I will and steadfastly command, that they and their heirs may have and hold all these things aforesaid, by inheritance, of me and my heirs."

These later privileges appear to have operated unfavourably upon the inhabitants of London. It gave them license as they supposed, to do many things which were most injurious to the morals and prosperity of the city. Many of the sons of the wealthier and more influential citizens banded themselves together for the purpose of committing burglaries, street-robberies, and even murder. Such outrages were, at first, connived at, since it offered a pretext to the king for demanding several loans, or free gifts, and which amounted in three years only, to the sum of £4999. 17s. But this licentiousness being continued, the king resorted to more stringent measures. John Senex, a very rich citizen, was convicted of burglary; and though he offered five hundred pounds weight of silver for his pardon, it was sternly refused, the king ordering his immediate execution.

About the year 1163 the citizens came to a resolution that London-bridge should be rebuilt of stone; a former bridge had been burnt, and the present bridge had become so out of repair, that another had become absolutely necessary. Hereupon application was made to Peter, minister of St. Mary Colechurch, famed for his knowledge of architecture, to carry the resolutions of the citizens into execution. He proposed that the intended stone bridge should be a little westward of the wooden bridge, which abutted upon Botolph-wharf. A tax upon wool was applied for, and granted, for defraying the expense of its erection, which gave rise to the erroneous tradition that the bridge was built upon wool-packs. Its length was 915 feet, height 43 feet 9 inches, and width 73 feet: it consisted of twenty unequilateral arches.

Henry, in common with his predecessors, had from the beginning of his reign been very jealous of the rising power of the church. His great anxiety was, that the clergy should be subject to the civil law in common with his other subjects, than which nothing could be more reasonable. He also endeavoured to maintain his own supremacy in opposition to papal pretensions. In both of these he unhappily failed. The king had raised one Thomas à Becket from a station of obscurity to become his chancellor; and, being a churchman, he afterwards promoted him to the see of Canterbury. But the king had either greatly mistaken the character of this individual thus distinguished, or circumstances had so operated upon the mind of Becket, as to lead him to the opposition which he made to the king's wishes. The constitutions of Clarendon, which Henry proposed to pass into law, were as reasonable as they are equitable. Beckett had nominally agreed to them, but in reality was opposed to them, alleging that the king had forced him to commit perjury. His violence and opposition, at length, became so hateful to the king, that Henry connived at his assassination, if he was not a direct party to that most unwarrantable act. But the reputation of the martyred prelate was so great, that his influence was even more powerful when dead than whilst alive. This circumstance, combined with the warlike opposition of his own children, urged on by his wife, the furious Eleanor, obliged the unhappy monarch, however reluctantly, to succumb to the church.

Henry made a pilgrimage to Canterbury, the place of Becket's entombment, where, on coming in sight of the cathedral church, he dismounted, walked bare-foot towards

it, prostrated himself before the shrine of the saint, remained in prayer during the whole day, and watched the holy reliques through the night. He, moreover, assembled a chapter of monks in the morning, disrobed himself before them, put a scourge into the hands of each, and presented his bare shoulders to the lashes which these churchmen successively inflicted upon him. The next day he received absolution.

After such an exhibition as this, need we wonder at any results which followed. In May, 1175, a synod of the province of Canterbury was held at Westminster, when, amongst other regulations, it was decreed, “that no clergyman should marry; that a clergyman found at drinking entertainments, or in taverns or public-houses, excepting upon a journey, should be degraded; that no one in holy orders should sit upon trials of life and death, nor pass or execute sentence for the loss of limbs, nor serve the office of high-sheriff; that clerks with long hair should be cropped by the arch-deacon; that neither monks or clerks should turn merchants or soldiers, or appear in a military garb; that the bread should not be dipped in the eucharistical wine, because, as Jesus gave a sop only to Judas, this would point out a communicant to be a traitor, and not a worthy receiver; that no marriages should be valid, but such as were performed in the face of the church, and under pain of suspension of the priest officiating, for three years.”

The concluding years of Henry’s reign were most wretched. Besides having to do with a refractory clergy; his greatest troubles arose within the bosom of his own family. His marriage was a most unhappy one. Eleanor, his wife, be-

sides despising and detesting him herself, took every opportunity of promoting insubordination towards the king in others, especially amongst his own family. She was much older than Henry at the time of the marriage; but the king found to his sorrow that she was young enough to bring him a brood of vipers—his own children—who began first by annoying him, and ultimately by stinging him to death. He had quelled rebellion after rebellion, which his sons had raised; but, at length, wearied out by these broils, he became spiritless; and on finding that his son John, whom he had always relied upon, was engaged against him, he is said to have turned to the wall overwhelmed with grief, and expired soon afterwards, in the fifty-seventh year of his age.

A sovereign devoted to foreign enterprise is sure to promote distraction at home. War may open the doors for commerce, but peace alone can keep them open. Richard, surnamed *Cœur-de-Lion*, or Lion-hearted, the son and successor of Henry, with all his personal accomplishments, was a bad king. He passed much of his own time in chivalrous exploits, and exhausted the treasury of his people by so doing. During the ten years which he reigned, only four months were spent in England.

The coronation of Richard took place at Westminster in 1189, when the bailiff, or chief magistrate of London, claimed his right of officiating in the office of chief-butler, and which was conceded to him. The solemnity of the coronation, however, was sullied by a dreadful outrage which happened on this occasion. The Jews were, by an order issued only the day before, forbidden to enter Westminster Abbey.

This, with presents in their hands, they imprudently attempted, and were repulsed by the king's domestics. The malicious mob chose to interpret this as an order from the king for the destruction of the Jewish people. A horrid massacre ensued ; and the wanton frenzy communicating to the city, all the Jews that could be found were murdered, and their houses burned. The clergy applauded the outrage ; but the king having instigated an inquiry into this unparalleled instance of barbarity, ordered the ringleaders of it to be hanged forthwith.

Scarcely had Richard's reign begun ere he determined to fulfil a promise made by his father, to join the king of France in the crusade, or holy war. Our limits forbid us from following the English sovereign in this expedition. Suffice it to say, that the crusade, so called from the soldiers engaged in it wearing a cross, is one of the numerous Quixotic enterprises devised by the Romish church for the destruction of infidels. The crusaders were excited to madness by an infuriated clergy to undertake the conquest of the Holy Land generally, and of Jerusalem specially. In this war Richard achieved prodigies by his valour ; whilst he likewise sacrificed the lives and property of his deluded subjects. For the accomplishment of his purpose, precepts were directed to Henry de Cornhill, sheriff of London, to provide a certain number of helmets, steel caps, shields, spears, pavilions, and other military accoutrements, together with silken habits, mitres, caps, dalmatics, coats, and wine for the king's use.

About this time, 1191, his Majesty granted to the bailiff of London, Henry Fitz-Alwine, the right of assuming the title

of *mayor*. And, accordingly, the next year, we find certain orders of the *mayor* and aldermen, to prevent fire, ordering that stone should be employed instead of wood. And, for carrying this order into effect, it was also provided, “that twelve aldermen of the city should be chosen in full hustings, and there sworn to assist the *mayor* to appease contentions that might arise among neighbours in the city, upon inclosure between land and land; and to regulate party-walls,” &c.

King Richard, prior to his departure for Palestine, appointed Hugh, Bishop of Durham, and William Longchamp, bishop of Ely, justiciaries and guardians of the realm during his absence. But soon after the king’s departure, the Earl of Moreton, afterwards King John, convened the nobility and citizens of London together in St. Paul’s church, to inquire into the tyrannical government and contumacious deportment of William Longchamp. They unanimously resolved to degrade him by the suspension of all his offices. The behaviour of the citizens in this matter was so highly approved, that Earl Moreton, with other commissioners of the regency, confirmed to them all their ancient privileges, and swore to uphold the same during the king’s absence. The citizens, in return, swore to be true and faithful to their sovereign King Richard; but that he dying without issue, they would receive his brother John as king, swearing fealty to him.

The conduct of John, Earl of Moreton, himself towards his brother, during his absence was very equivocal. He tampered with the lords justices, alleging that his brother was

dead. The commissioners, however, turned a deaf ear to John's suggestions, and hastened to put the city and kingdom into a posture of defence. Adam St. Edmonds, coming to London, and dining with Hubert, Archbishop of Canterbury, talked openly of John's intentions, and of his commission from him to fortify the castles against the king. The archbishop, not wishing to apprehend him when on a visit in his own house, nevertheless contrived that the Mayor of London might arrest him on his way to the inn. All his papers and commissions from Earl John were seized, and handed over to the archbishop. In consequence, the bishops and nobles were convened for the express purpose of considering this matter, when they determined that all the estates of Earl John, in England, should be *disseized*, and siege laid to his castles. The return of King Richard superseded the necessity of further proceedings.

The loyal conduct of the Londoners was so highly appreciated by Richard on his liberation from imprisonment and return home, that, in April, 1195, he granted a full confirmation of all their rights and immunities made to them by the charters of Henry I. and II. After this favour, the citizens cheerfully contributed fifteen hundred marks towards the amount which had been stipulated for the king's ransom. This liberality led a German nobleman, who had come to England in the king's suite, to observe, "that had the emperor been acquainted with the affluence of Richard's subjects, he would have demanded a more exorbitant sum for his ransom." King Richard, we may just remark, was no less feared abroad than respected at home, for the King

of France writing to John, Earl of Moreton, on the liberation of Richard, says, “*take care of yourself—the devil is broken loose.*”

Shortly after this, the peace of the city was disturbed by a riot amongst the lower orders of the people, having one William Fitz-Osbert, called Longbeard, for their ringleader. The pretence for this outbreak was an alleged unequal aid or tallage levied upon the citizens. Longbeard was summoned to appear before Hubert, Archbishop of Canterbury, one of the king’s justiciaries; but he was followed thither with so large a mob, that it was thought prudent to dismiss him merely with a reprimand. The citizens, notwithstanding, thought it necessary to seize him by surprise. But making a desperate defence, he made good a retreat to Bow-church in Cheapside. Here, assisted by a small party, he fortified the steeple, and set the civil authorities at defiance. The magistrates at length prevailed; and, setting fire to the lower part of the steeple, left the rioters no alternative but either to perish in the flames, or make a desperate effort for their escape. They resorted to the latter expedient; but met with such powerful resistance, that Longbeard and eight of his accomplices were apprehended, and committed to the Tower. They were tried the very next day, and being found guilty, were on the following day drawn by their feet through the city to Smithfield, and executed: the malefactors were afterwards hung in chains. But the body of Longbeard having been taken away, a report was raised that miracles had been wrought by his body at the place of execution, and great numbers collected to pay their devotions to this reputed saint. A military force alone could disperse the people.

Although the fraud and imposture thus practised were fully authenticated, yet the monks of Christ-church had the impudence to prefer a formal complaint to the Pope, against Hubert, their archbishop, for a *breach of sanctuary*, because Longbeard, by his order, had been forced out of Bow-church. Letters were immediately addressed to the king, by papal authority, demanding the dismissal of the archbishop.

In 1197, another charter was granted by King Richard to the loyal citizens of London, giving them the conservancy of the river Thames, for destroying all obstructions in its navigation, especially dams made for taking fish or their spawn, and *weirs* for conveying water to mills. Considerable difficulty having arisen in the performance of this charter, several others, in the course of time, became necessary, explanatory of it. The city jurisdiction was made to extend a little westward of Staines Bridge, and to Yenlet, east of London, including part of the rivers Medway and Lea. And, for the right discharge of these duties, an officer, called the *water-bailiff*, was appointed to act as the Lord Mayor's deputy, in bringing to justice all offenders against the said ordinances. Courts of conservancy are still held eight times a year, within the counties of Middlesex, Surrey, Kent, and Essex, for the better maintaining the rights and privileges of the river Thames. The king's charter concludes with these memorable words:—"Which thing, to the intent it may continue for ever firm and stable, we do fortify by the inscription of this present page, and the putting to of our seal: these being witnesses, ‘JOHN OF WORCESTER,’ &c.

The year before the king's death, it was resolved that a

standard of weights and measures should be fixed for the whole realm. Such was the confidence of Richard in the wisdom of the citizens of London, that he committed the execution of this matter to them ; and the sheriffs of London and Middlesex were commanded to provide measures, gallons, iron rods, and weights for standards, to be sent to the several counties of England. At this time corn had risen in price to 18s. 4d. per quarter.

Richard died in 1199, having been wounded in the shoulder by an arrow which had been shot at him. No man ever more distinguished himself by military talents and personal intrepidity. He was, moreover, generous and sincere, as well as brave ; and hence was much beloved by his English subjects. He is also believed to be the first prince of the Norman line that bore any sincere regard to them. He left the treasury completely exhausted.

John, Earl of Moreton, succeeded to the throne on the death of his brother Richard I., who died without issue. The new king being poor, became liberal in granting charters to the citizens of London, if for no better reason than to fleece them of a little money. For their first charter they paid three thousands marks. Former charters were confirmed, together with exemption from all toll, duties, and customs in his Majesty's foreign dominions. The power of choosing their own sheriffs was likewise granted. This last charter is remarkable for the introduction of the well-known legal terms "*to have and to hold.*"

About this time, the architect of London-bridge, Peter of Cole-church, being in some way incapacitated for continuing that great work, Serle Mercer, William Almaine, and Bene-

dict Botewrite, merchants of London, were appointed to get the bridge completed. They accordingly employed one Isenbert, a Frenchman, to complete the work, and, moreover, to build certain houses on the bridge, the rents of which might be appropriated to repairing and upholding the same. The king afterwards took the custody of the bridge from the mayor, and granted it to one friar West. The bridge was not finished until the year 1209.

The city of London, in 1205, had an opportunity of showing their attachment to the king on the arrival of his nephew the emperor Otho, whom they entertained in a most magnificent manner. They also, finding the king short of money, made him a present of £300, together with two hundred marks, to be excused the fifteenth imposed upon merchants, and the further sum of £1,000 towards defraying the expense of an expedition against Scotland. In 1207, the king sent an order to the city council to degrade and imprison their sheriffs, for having refused to allow his majesty's purveyors to carry off a quantity of corn which they had bought in London, a scarcity of corn existing at the time. The king's orders were complied with; but a deputation being sent to court, his majesty was satisfied that the sheriffs had done what they did to prevent an insurrection of the people. The sheriffs thereupon were released from custody by the king's order.

The king's difficulties, however, did not proceed from civil disorders only, but from ecclesiastical pretensions also. Hubert, the primate, died; and the monks or canons of Canterbury having a right of voting in the election of their archbishop, determined to do so without waiting for the con-

currence of the king. They clandestinely elected Reginald, installed him in the archiepiscopal throne, and sent him immediately to Rome, to procure the confirmation of his election. John, when he heard of it, was alike enraged at the novelty and temerity of the attempt; the suffragan bishops were also offended that they had been excluded in this election. John, knowing that an appeal would be made to a higher tribunal than his own, thought it sufficient to recommend the senior canons of Christ-church to elect John de Gray, Bishop of Norwich, for their primate. The election of that prelate accordingly took place, the king urging upon the suffragan bishops the necessity of foregoing their claim in the election; but these prelates persevered in maintaining their right. The bishops accordingly sent an agent to Rome to support their cause; twelve monks were likewise despatched to the same place to plead for the confirmation of their election. Reginald, also, preferred his claim before the same tribunal. But the wily pontiff, Innocent, perceiving the dilemma in which the respective suppliants were placed, determined to reject all their claims by introducing a precedent until now unknown, namely, that the disposal of the see of Canterbury ought to be, and hereafter ever should be, at the disposal of the court of Rome.

The twelve monks of Christ-church were, at length, summoned to appear before the Roman pontiff, when he peremptorily commanded them, under the penalty of excommunication, to choose for their primate Cardinal Langton. The monks, with a single exception, made the election required of them. John, on hearing this, was inflamed with the utmost rage; and determined to vent his fury upon

the clergy and the religious houses, from whom he exacted the sum of £100,000. He, moreover, showed his resentment to the White-friars of Christ-church, by levying upon them a gratuity to him of £40,000.

But Pope Innocent, knowing the king's weakness, first sent the angry monarch a mild letter, accompanied with a few *baubles* as a present. These, however, not producing the desired effect, and the pope determining not to withdraw his pretensions, made a further communication, exhorting the king not to oppose God and the church any longer, or to injure that cause for which the holy martyr St. Thomas à Becket had sacrificed his life. An intimation was also given, that if the king persevered in his disobedience, the sovereign pontiff would lay the whole kingdom under an interdict. All the prelates entreated the king to submit, without delay, to his spiritual father; but John, instead of so doing, broke out into the most violent invectives against both the pope and the clergy.

Had the barons interposed, a reconciliation might still have been made; but his holiness knowing the ill odour in which the king was with his nobles, at once launched forth the thunders of the Vatican, and directed three prelates, the bishops of London, Ely, and Worcester, to see that the sentence of interdict was carried into execution. The effect of such a sentence cannot now be properly appreciated: it would be regarded but as so many idle words. But at the period of which we are treating, it was far otherwise. By it the whole nation was totally deprived of all the exterior exercise of its religion—the altars were despoiled of their ornaments; the crosses, the relics, the images, the statues

of the saints, were laid on the ground, the priests carefully covering them up. The bells were not only discontinued, but removed from the steeples, and, with other sacred utensils, laid on the ground. Mass was celebrated with closed doors, none but priests being admitted. No religious rite was administered to the laity, excepting that of baptism to newly-born infants, and the *viaticum* to the dying. Persons were not buried in consecrated ground, or the service of the church performed over them. Marriage was celebrated in the churchyards; the use of meat was prohibited; salutation to each other forbidden; and any decent attention either to their beards or their dress was strictly forbidden.

John, however, still remained refractory. At length, the arrogant pontiff gave authority to the bishops before-named to fulminate the sentence of excommunication against their sovereign. Many of the dignified clergy and nobility, under one pretext or another, withdrew from the court, and stole out of the kingdom. The king justly became alarmed at the perilous situation in which he had placed himself, and sought a conference with the newly-elected archbishop. The primate, perceiving the difficulties with which the king was surrounded, became so exorbitant in his demands, that the conference was suddenly broken off. This being done, the next step which the pope took was, to absolve the king's subjects from their oaths of fidelity and allegiance to him. Such were the extraordinary procedures of the court of Rome!

Hitherto the inhabitants of London had maintained their accustomed fidelity to their unworthy sovereign, and still showed a disposition, by every means in their power, to sup-

port him amidst all the difficulties which his spiritual foes had brought upon him. But the king had resorted to such unjustifiable and oppressive means of raising money, and had likewise in so many instances violated the engagements which he had made, that his faithful city of London became alienated from him, and the citizens felt themselves obliged to unite with the barons for the national defence.

The Londoners were displeased and disgusted with their sovereign for having wantonly, as they believed, removed the exchequer to Northampton ; and the king's conduct becoming increasingly equivocal, they thought it expedient to put the city in a better state of defence. In the year 1211, therefore, the walls of London were strengthened by a deep ditch, two hundred feet wide, which was finished in about two years. A calamitous accident took place the next year, which, beside retarding this work, occasioned a great loss of property, with a frightful loss of life, about three thousand persons having perished : on the night of the 10th of July, 1212, a fire broke out upon London Bridge, then covered with houses, which, beginning on the Surrey side, communicated to a convent called *Our Lady of the Canons*, now St. Saviour's church ; and, a strong south wind prevailing, the flames quickly communicated to the northern extremity of the bridge, thus enveloping both the inhabitants of the bridge, and those who had come to the assistance of the sufferers. The bridge itself was greatly injured, and a vast number of houses in the city and in Southwark were consumed.

Robert Fitzwater, castellain and standard-bearer of the city, incurred the displeasure of his sovereign. He had taken part with the malcontent barons, and had also fled to France,

having refused to give security for the continuance of his allegiance. The king, in a fit of passion, ordered his domicile, called Barnard's Castle, situated at the south end of Thames-street, to be destroyed. Another cause likewise contributed to this violence. The king had become enamoured with Fitzwater's daughter Matilda, designated from her personal charms, the Fair. The monarch had proffered his affections, but on dishonourable terms, which the maiden and her father had indignantly rejected. The king at first dissembled ; but afterwards proceeded to extremities, and Matilda's beauty was destroyed by poison, though the king could not possess it.

John's imprudence and tyranny had now brought matters to a climax. Deserted by his barons, and threatened with an invasion by France, the unhappy king was obliged to submit to the domineering pontiff. His holiness sent his legate Pandolf to England, and the king, now become obsequious, met him at Dover, where, after a lengthened conference, John agreed to submit to the infamous and degrading terms then offered him. They proceeded to London, and the king, summoning a convention of the states of the kingdom at St. Paul's Cathedral, publicly renewed the scandalous agreement which had been previously made. The humbled monarch declared that of his own free will, for the remission of his sins, and by the advice and consent of his barons, he resigned England and Ireland to God, to St. Peter, and St. Paul, and to Pope Innocent, and his successors in the apostolic chair. He, moreover, agreed to hold his dominions as a feudatory of the church of Rome, by the annual payment of one thousand marks ; and that, if

he or his successors should presume to infringe this agreement, all right to their dominions should be forfeited. The king also engaged to submit himself entirely to the judgment of the pope; to acknowledge Langton for primate; to restore all the exiled clergy and laity who had taken part against him, and to make full restitution for all damage incurred; and that all who had been imprisoned for their adherence to the pope, should be again received into the king's favour.

Never were demands more absurd and unreasonable than these. Yet such were the iron-like, though spiritual meshes of the net into which this royal leviathan had gotten, that nothing but the most abject submission could ensure even a partial liberation. A Vatican interdict in a Protestant country, at the present time, is less than nothing, made only to be laughed at; but in the times of King John, it was far otherwise. Even in times comparatively modern, the interference of the Roman pontiff has been most disastrous. Much of the devastating fury and horrid massacres of the French revolution were occasioned by the pertinacious interference of the see of Rome. Of this the Abbé Baruel, in his history of that bloody period, gives many affecting instances. Neither should Englishmen quite forget that *their own beloved country continues to the present hour under a papal interdict*. Like many laws in our own statute-books, this may have fallen into desuetude, but the fact remains the same.

After the settlement of these wretched differences it might be supposed that the degraded monarch would have sought to be quiet, and cultivate the arts of peace. But the king was either so weak or so wicked, that contention and strife

seemed the very elements of his existence. The amount of money exacted by the king to pay the various demands of the clergy was enormous, occasioning general discontent. His conduct in public and private life was alike odious and contemptible. His personal insolence towards his barons was intolerable. His licentiousness in the first families of the kingdom produced further discontent; his meanness also in abandoning the kingdom to the dictation of an imperious pontiff, determined the barons upon insisting that their former privileges should be restored to them. In this they were greatly encouraged by Langton, the triumphant primate. He, actuated either by an affection for the public good, or an animosity towards the king for the opposition made to his election, refused him absolution until, beside other promises, he forced from him an oath, that he would engage to re-establish the good laws of Edward, and abolish the wicked ones by which he was then guided. The primate, moreover, showed the barons a copy of Henry the First's charter, and recommended them to insist upon its renewal. This appeared so reasonable a demand, that the barons swore they would sooner lose their lives than depart from it. An interview took place in London; and from this time the confederacy rapidly spread, until nearly all the barons of England were included in it. Langton summoned a meeting at St. Edmundsbury, where the charter was again produced, and his harangue so roused the barons, that they solemnly engaged by an oath taken before the *high altar* to adhere to each other, and to make eternal war upon their sovereign until he had complied with their demands.

The barons accordingly met in London soon after Christ-

mas, as agreed upon, and preferred their demands to the king. The king hesitated, but promised his final answer by Easter. The Archbishop of Canterbury, the Bishop of Ely, and the Earl of Pembroke became the king's sureties; and the barons, satisfied with the king's answer, peaceably returned to their respective castles. Upon this, John once more endeavoured to tamper with the church. He renounced all right of investiture; yielded to the clergy the election to all vacancies in the church; he made a vow to lead an army into Palestine, taking upon himself the cross. He likewise sent an agent to Rome to plead against the insolence of his barons, and solicit a favourable sentence from the spiritual umpire. The barons, on their part, likewise sent to Rome, beseeching the interference of Innocent as their feudal lord.

The pope, in his turn, thought it to the interest of the court of Rome to encourage the king in opposition to his barons. His holiness, therefore, accepted of John's concessions to the church, and threatened the barons with the spiritual punishment of excommunication if they continued in rebellion against their sovereign. But matters had already gone too far. The nobles were in arms; and a negociation had been set on foot to secure the concurrence of the Londoners. This request the citizens of London immediately complied with, and the barons marched with such promptness and secrecy, that they actually reached the city before the king had even heard of their having left their encampment at Ware. The city gates were instantly secured; the houses of the king's partisans plundered, and the city walls repaired. A siege was commenced against the Tower, where the king at that time usually resided.

John, as usual, employed dissimulation, and the Roman pontiff launched his anathemas against them ; but the nobles having the primate Langton with them, together with a large number of the clergy, they would not be deterred from their purpose. At length the king consented to a conference, which was accordingly held ; and after a debate of a few days, in which the proposed clauses were discussed, this famous deed was signed and sealed by the king ; and has since generally been denominated the **GREAT CHARTER**. This document is too long to be inserted entire : the following digest of it by Judge Blackstone, will be acceptable to our readers.

" **THE GREAT CHARTER** confirmed many liberties of the church, and redressed many grievances incident to feudal tenures, of no small moment at the time ; though now, unless considered attentively, and with this retrospect, they seem but of trifling concern. But, besides these feudal provisions, care was also taken therein to protect the subject against other oppressions, then frequently arising from unreasonable amercements, from illegal distresses, or other process for debts or services due to the crown ; and from the tyrannical abuse of the prerogative of purveyance and pre-emption. It fixed the forfeiture of lands for felony in the same manner as it still remains ; prohibited for the future the grants of exclusive fisheries, and the erection of new bridges so as to oppress the neighbourhood. With respect to private rights : it established the testamentary power of the subject over part of his personal estate, the rest being distributed among his wife and children ; it laid down the law of dower as it has remained ever since ; and prohibited the appeals of women, unless for the death of their husbands. In matters of public policy and national concern, it enjoined an uniformity of weights and measure ; gave new encouragement to commerce by the protection of merchant-strangers, and forbade the alienation of lands in mortmain. With regard to the administration of justice : besides prohibiting all denials or delays of it, it fixed the Court of Common Pleas at Westminster, that the suitors might be no longer harassed with following the king's person in all his progresses ; and at the same time brought the trials of issues home to the very doors of the freeholders, by directing assizes to be taken in the proper counties, and establishing annual circuits ; also corrected some abuses then incident to the trials by wager of law and of battle ; directed the regular awarding of

inquests for life or member; prohibited the king's inferior ministers from holding pleas of the crown, or trying any criminal charge, whereby many forfeitures might otherwise have unjustly accrued to the exchequer, and regulated the time and place of holding the inferior tribunals of justice, the county-court, sheriffs'-town, and court-leet. It confirmed and established the liberties of the city of London, and all other cities, boroughs, towns, and ports of the kingdom. And lastly, (which alone would have merited the title that it bears of the Great Charter,) **IT PROTECTED EVERY INDIVIDUAL OF THE NATION IN THE FREE ENJOYMENT OF HIS LIFE, HIS LIBERTY, AND HIS PROPERTY, UNLESS DECLARED TO BE FORFEITED BY THE JUDGMENT OF HIS PEERS, OR THE LAW OF THE LAND."**

This most important document was signed and sealed out of doors, in a meadow, on the banks of the Thames, situated between Windsor and Staines. The meadow, it is thought, was called *Runnymede*, a word signifying the *Mead of Council*. The charter itself confirms this fact, concluding with these words: "Given under our hands in the meadow called Runnymede, between Windsor and Staines, on the fifteenth day of June, and in the seventeenth year of our reign. The charter was written in Latin, of which three copies only are known to be extant: two in the Cottonian library of the British Museum, and one in the library of the cathedral of Salisbury. Our readers will be pleased with a short extract :

" Nullus liber homo capiatur, vel imprisonetur, aut dissaisietur, aut utlugetur, aut exuletur, aut aliquo medo destruatur; nec super eum ibimus, nec super eum mittemus, nisi per legale judicium parium suorum vel legem terræ. Nulli vendemus, nulli negabimus, aut differemus rectum aut judicium." In English thus:—" No freeman shall be apprehended, or imprisoned, or disseized, (deprived of anything he possesses,) or outlawed, or banished, or any way destroyed; nor will we go upon him, nor will we send upon him, (pronounce sentence against him, or allow any of the judges to do so,) except by the legal judgment of his peers, (persons of the same rank as himself,) or by the law of the land. To none will we sell, to none will we deny, to none will we delay right or justice."

The barons and citizens of London had too often experienced the vacillating conduct of the king to be satisfied with his mere signature to a form of words, however solemnly performed. They very prudently demanded security also. The king, therefore, further agreed, “that all his foreign officers should be sent out of the kingdom ; that the city of London, for the next two months, should be held by the barons, and the Tower by their supporter, Cardinal Langton, Archbishop of Canterbury ; that the barons should choose five and twenty of their own order to act as guardians or conservators of the liberties of the kingdom ; that all men throughout the land should be bound, under penalty of confiscation, to swear obedience to the barons so chosen ; and that the freeholders of each county should appoint twelve knights, who were to make report of such evil customs as required redress, conformably with the conditions of the new charter.” It was likewise agreed “that, if any complaints were made of a violation of the charter, whether by the king, the justiciaries the sheriffs, or the foresters, any four of the elected barons might admonish the king to redress the grievance ; or if satisfaction were not obtained, they might assemble the whole council of twenty-five, who, in conjunction with the great council, were empowered to compel the king to the observance of the charter, by making war against him, attacking his castles, and employing any kind of violence that might be thought necessary, his own person, and those of his queen and children only excepted. Robert Fitzwalter, one of the twenty-five barons, had previously been appointed general, or commander-in-chief, under the memorable title of ‘*Mareschal of the army of God, and of holy church.*’”

The degraded monarch, towards the end of the day, retired with his court to Windsor Castle. He could no longer suppress his feelings of rage and indignation : he cursed the day of his birth, gnashed his teeth, rolled his eyes, gnawed sticks and straws, and appeared for a time no better than a confirmed maniac. When he became somewhat calm, he gave vent to those expressions of revenge which made it certain that the charter, however stringent in its conditions, would not long remain inviolate.

For a short time after the signing of the charter, the unhappy John affected to comply with its conditions. He wrote to the various sheriffs requiring their assistance in the correction of abuses, and the due administration of justice. The general conduct of the king, notwithstanding, did but demonstrate that his professions were sheer dissimulation. Though he became comparatively silent and reserved, yet he embraced every opportunity of oppressing his subjects. But matters were presently to be brought to a crisis. The king covertly applied to the pope for his assistance against his rebellious people ; and the pontiff, professing to be offended that the barons had so peremptorily acted towards the king, who had placed himself and his kingdom under the power of Rome, began first by threatening, and afterwards by launching his thunders against the king's subjects. The infatuated monarch had raised a large foreign force of mercenary soldiers, who had placed themselves under the king's orders. With the arrival of these hired marauders from the continent came also the papal *bull*, demanding an unrestricted submission to their sovereign ; and which was directed to Cardinal Langton. The cardinal forthwith refused to pub-

lish this anathema ; and the barons and citizens, alleging that the same had been obtained by improper means, likewise refused a compliance with it.

Whether the barons had relaxed in their energy, or had become feeble from other causes, certain it is, that the king's troops soon became masters of the open country. The barons upon this determined to repair to London ; and were received within the walls by the citizens. The king upon this approached the walls ; but found that the Londoners were not so discouraged as to prevent their making a firm resistance. They even made a successful sally against the king's troops, choosing rather to perish than be enslaved. In this encounter the king's party was routed, and a considerable number either killed or wounded : among the former was the king's general. The wretched John, therefore, fearing from this rough treatment a further repulse, determined not to risk a general engagement, but to retire. London, even at this calamitous period, possessed so much of its native vigour as to be able to protect the trade and navigation of the Thames, by fitting out a considerable fleet, with which they took or destroyed sixty-five ships which belonged to a nest of pirates who had made an attack upon them.

Such was the vindictive conduct of John towards his afflicted people, that the barons proposed, as a last resort, that the crown should be offered to Louis, eldest son of the King of France, on condition that he would protect them from ruin, maintain their ancient laws, rights, and privileges, and bring over a sufficient force with him to enable them to stem the violence of their sovereign. To this desperate expedient the Londoners consented.

Louis was accordingly invited to England: an invitation which he promptly accepted. He first sent a messenger over with his congratulations and promises; and soon after followed himself with an army. His forces having disembarked at Sandwich, on his way to London, he took the castle of Rochester, and hastening onward, soon reached and entered the metropolis; where, having solemnly sworn to restore the laws and estates of his new subjects, he received the homage and fealty of the barons and citizens.

This extraordinary and unconstitutional movement produced almost an instantaneous change. The foreign troops in John's army quickly deserted; and many noblemen, partisans of the king, went over to the side of the barons. Yet the ultimate success of imposing on the nation a foreign yoke was still very doubtful. The troops of Louis were but few, and the king was again assembling a considerable army, determined to make another great effort for the crown. But at this critical juncture the king fell ill. Almost at the same time he lost his carriages, baggage, and regalia in crossing the sands from Lynn towards Boston; and, being overwhelmed by the distracted state of his affairs, his heart sunk within him. Scarcely had he reached Newark, when he breathed his last, being in the forty-ninth year of his age, and eighteenth of his reign.

Little need be said of the character of such a prince as John. His actions but too clearly declare that he was a *bad man* in every social relationship. The monks, who tell his history, reproach him also for his impiety. Perhaps our readers will hardly think the following anecdote of him sufficient to substantiate so serious a charge. The king having one

day caught a very fat stag, exclaimed, “ How plump and well fed is this animal ! and yet I dare swear that he never heard *mass*.” John likewise is greatly blamed for another act of his, which, but for the exaction of money that prompted it, would be called an act of justice. For a large sum of money, he granted liberty to the Jews to have a kind of *high priest*. The patent for it was granted to one Rabbi Jacob, of London, for his life, and conveyed to him *the superintendency over all the Jews in England*.

Fitzstephen gives us the following graphic description of London at this period. He says, “ that the city was connected by an irregular line of houses along the *strand* of the river, with the village of Charing, proceeding thence to the king’s palace at Westminster, a distance reckoned at about two miles. In this line of communication were situated the houses of different noblemen and wealthy citizens, who had spacious and beautiful gardens, some running to the borders of the Thames, planted with trees and flowers. The northern suburbs were composed of corn-fields, pastures, and delightful meadows, intersected with pleasant streams, on which stands many a mill, whose clack is so grateful to the ear. Beyond them an immense forest extends itself, beautified with woods and groves, and full of lairs and coverts of beasts and game, stags, bucks, boars, and wild bulls. The fields are by no means of a hungry gravelly soil, or barren sands, but may vie with the fertile plains of Asia, as capable of producing the most luxurious crops, and filling the barns of the *hinds*, and the farmers with Ceres’ golden sheaf. Around the city, and towards the north, arise certain excellent springs at small distance, whose waters are sweet, salubrious, and clear, the rivulets murmuring over the shining stone. Amongst these,

Holywell, Clerkenwell, and St. Clement's well are most esteemed, and best frequented both by scholars from the schools, and the youths and maidens of the city."

William of Malmsbury, another of our chroniclers, describes London at about the same period, as "a noble city, renowned for the opulence of her citizens, and crowded with the merchants who resort thither with their various commodities." The traffic for corn appears at this time to have been wholly engrossed by the London merchants, "who had their granaries always filled, whence all parts of the kingdom were supplied." At this period likewise it was that the representatives of London, jointly with those of the cinque ports, were, as a matter of compliment, dignified with the title of *barons*, an appellation to which they are still entitled.

The general manner of living at this time appears most extravagant. Fitzstephen, the romantic historian just quoted, says, "that an Archbishop of Canterbury paid for a *single dish of eels* five pounds," amounting to more than eighty pounds sterling. This, however, is somewhat marvellous. The soberness of the hours, perhaps, may compensate for a little extravagance in other respects. At court, and in the families of the proudest barons, the time for dining was nine o'clock in the morning; and of supper, five in the afternoon. These hours, according to the proverbial *jingle* of the day, were regarded, not only as favourable to business, but conducive to health also,

To rise at five, and dine at nine,
To sup at five, and bed at nine,
Lengthens life at ninety-nine!

Provisions were, at this epoch, exceedingly cheap. An income of £10 a-year would then have gone as far in house-keeping as £150 sterling would now. Wheat sold for 3s.

per quarter, or about 9s. of our times; Rochelle wine, 20s. per tun; Anjou wine, 24s.; and the best French wine, at 26s., or about 80s. of our present money.

King John, it is believed, was the first monarch who coined sterling, or *easterling* money, so called from artists having been sent for from Germany to rectify the silver coinage. The penny was of silver, the twentieth part of an ounce, and was, by enactment, to be round without any clipping, and “to weigh thirty-two wheat corns taken out of the midst of the ear.” The place where the bullion was coined was nearly in the middle of the street, now called Old Change, near St. Paul’s.

The amusements of the people consisted either of dramatic performances, or the more active rural and other sports. Plays and farces were acted by itinerant companies, composed of minstrels, jugglers, dancers, and jesters. These companies were patronized, not so much by the lower classes, as by the nobility, and at court. The castles of the barons became the constant resort of the *players*, where they were well received, and munificently rewarded. The palaces of kings were often made to resound with the same recitations. Of the particular character of these early performances we cannot give any very correct account; yet it is pretty evident that a species of *extemporaneous ribaldry*, spoken by clowns and jesters, formed an essential part of these popular entertainments. Perhaps the money which was lavished upon these showmen may have induced the clergy to become actors, in order to reap a share of the public bounty, monopolized by this portion of the laity. Certain it is that exhibitions were now in vogue called *Mysteries* and *Moralities*, in which the clergy became the performers, and the churches often the places of the performance. Many of these *dramas* have reached our own times, and would

now be esteemed more objectionable than the legitimate drama. The *Mysteries* were subjects taken from the Scriptures, and designed to represent, in a dramatic form, some miracle, or doctrine, or history. One of these *Mysteries*, still extant, is called the *Mystery of Corpus Christi*. It consists, besides the prologue recited by three persons, of several *pageants*, or acts, amounting, in the whole, to *forty*, and in each of which some particular subject from holy writ is taken up, beginning with the *creation* of the universe, and concluding with the *last judgment*. The Divine Being is first introduced, then the angels, singing, “To thee all angels cry aloud,” &c., from the church service. Lucifer then appears, but is ultimately sent to *his own place*. Such profane performances were sometimes continued for several days successively. These *Mysteries* were frequently enlivened by the mimic powers of *Beelzebub*, assisted by a merry troop of *subordinate devils*, who excited laughter by strange noises, ridiculous postures, gestures, or grimaces. The *Moralities* were designed to enforce some moral virtue. The dialogue being carried on by allegorical characters, such as *Charity*, *Faith*, *Prudence*, and so forth; but the province of amusing the auditory was usually assigned to *vice* or *iniquity*, personifying some one of the passions of human nature. To one of these ancient moralities, it is said, we owe the existence of Milton’s inimitable poem of *Paradise Lost*.

The more active sports of this period were leaping, dancing, archery, cross-bow shooting, wrestling, hurling, running at the *Quintain*, and practising their shields. The city damsels played on their *citherns* or timbrels, and danced until the evening closed upon their merriments, and which was often continued by the light of the moon. In winter, on every holiday, before dinner, the bears to be prepared for *brawn* were set to fight; or else

bulls or bears baited. The citizens also delighted in hawks and hounds, having “the liberty of hunting in Middlesex, Hertfordshire, all Chilton, and in Kent to the waters of Gray.”

Before we proceed farther in the history of London, it seems desirable to glance at those circumstances which give a peculiar character to the period which we have been reviewing. We refer to that feudal system which had for several centuries pervaded the whole of Europe, which was fully developed at the time of the conquest, and which the **GREAT CHARTER** was one principal means of overturning.

On the decline of the Roman empire, the inhabitants of northern Germany made many irruptions into the more southern parts of Europe, and, under different names, and by different leaders, became possessed of the more southern countries, introducing laws and principles until now unknown; and which, though for a time producing disorganization and anarchy, yet ultimately tended to establish a more liberal polity, accompanied with harmony and order. Cæsar and Tacitus both mention the singular characteristics of these marauders. “The Germans,” says the first of these historians, “were not attached to the soil by agricultural pursuits, living principally upon milk, cheese, and meat; that no lands were considered as their own, but that the princes or magistrates assigned such portions of land as individuals might desire, but obliged them, the ensuing year, to go elsewhere.” Tacitus adds, “That every prince had a number of persons who were attached to him and followed him.” Whilst this was producing a system of vassalage, other adventurers were seeking additional means of support, and who, at first, were satisfied with presents of corn and other eatables. But, after a time, it became necessary to give them portions of the soil,

which their chieftains held as *fiefs* of the king, or emperor of the country which they so possessed ; and which the chieftains afterwards divided amongst their retainers, and for which they paid either service or rent. This was the origin of that feudal system which spread through every part of civilized Europe. Such a state of things, however, was but little known in Britain prior to the Norman conquest. England, indeed, had been partially subjected to such a system by the Saxon conquerors ; but the quantity of land appropriated to the Saxon chiefs was comparatively but of small extent, the residue being left to the native inhabitants, by an *allotia* or free tenure. And to this very circumstance the greater freedom of Saxon institutions may be mainly imputed.

On the enterprize of William the Norman proving successful, the state of things became totally changed. The retainers of William had joined him for the express purpose of gaining possessions in England, and holding them on the same tenure as they had been accustomed to in their own country. England, therefore, in the most fearful sense of the word, became a conquered country, every inch of the soil, the possessions of the church, perhaps alone excepted, becoming the absolute property of the Conqueror, and subjected also to all the advantages and inconveniences of the feudal system. This at once explains the cause of the many outbreaks with which William had to contend ; and the almost general change which took place in the ownership, or rather possession, of the soil.

By this new order of things the king became the supreme lord of the whole soil ; and all who derived a revenue from any part of it, held that privilege, either immediately or mediately, of the sovereign. The land so held was regarded in the light of a benefit conferred, and for which certain service

was to be performed, or some acknowledgment in the form of fine or rent paid. This was the link which bound the king and his nobles together; and the extension of the principle subordinately led to that vassalage which united the nobles and their tenantry together. The vassal was bound to assist his baron in war, to submit to his authority, and to pay suit or service, or money, for the land which he occupied.

The noble chieftains, therefore, after the bustle and danger of war had ended, and the arts of industry and peace followed, exercised the office of civil magistrates, and adjusted those legal differences which might arise between man and man. The result of a system thus described would necessarily lead to those results which the facts declare that they did. The general feeling amongst all subordinates would be that they should not be governed by the absolute will of another, but to a certain extent, at least, by their own consent. The king, therefore, when he found it necessary to demand any service of the nobles or barons, to which by tenure they were not bound, was obliged to call them together, in order to obtain their consent; and, in cases of difficulty or danger, their advice also; and such meetings were attended with the most beneficial results. The barons so assembled, not merely gave a sanction to the king's proceedings, but tended also to put some restraint upon the royal prerogative. The sovereign, on the other hand, considered this as a badge of their subordination to him, and neutralized that spirit of independence which they were so inclined to effect.

In like manner, the barons often found it requisite to assemble their vassals to assist in all trials, whether military or civil, and to pay suit at the court of their baron; and since their tenure was military and honourable, they were admitted

to his friendship, and partook of his hospitality. The kingdom, in short, was considered but as a great barony, and a barony as a small kingdom. But it soon became apparent that the vassals had become more subordinate to the barons than they to their sovereign. The connexion of the nobles being but occasional and accidental. The vassals' greatness and security mainly depended for support upon their lord, with whom they were in constant intercourse. But notwithstanding the position of the barons rendered them more and more aristocratic, yet their interests continued also so united with that of their subordinates that when a struggle for power took place between the prince and his nobles, the latter found themselves unequal to the combat without the co-operation of the vassals; and the interest of both became united against tyrannical sway. This led to the adoption of several general clauses in the *Great Charter*, which affected the vassals almost equally with the barons. By them, the royal prerogative was restrained; and the nobles were not less coerced in the exercise of that magisterial authority which they possessed by their vassals.

The supreme legislative power of England was lodged in the sovereign and the great council, afterwards called the Parliament. The archbishops, bishops, and the dignified clergy, were members of the council by virtue of their office as churchmen, and also as nobles. The barons were another constituent part of the council, holding their right by a military tenure. But beside these, a third and a numerous class, had also a right of attendance in the great council; these were tenants *in capite*, by knights' service. The representatives of counties and boroughs were unknown. The Commons formed no part of the great council until several centuries after the conquest.

Deliberative assemblies, in connection with their sovereign,

would meet, at first, more as a means of security against the violence and injustice of their fellow citizens, than with an intention of restraining royal authority ; and, on the part of the king, to procure the concurrence of the nobles in any exaction he might wish to make, or assistance in any warfare upon which he may have determined to enter. The *executive*, however, was lodged in the king ; and who, at the three great festivals of Christmas, Easter, and Whitsuntide, or on any sudden emergency, summoned together a national council. Judicial authority also continued in the sovereign, and which was exercised by officers of his appointment. The court of barons decided disputes between the several vassals of the same barony ; the county and hundred courts judged between the subjects of different baronies ; and the *curia regis*, or king's court, (sometimes called the court of exchequer,) gave sentence among the barons themselves in all causes, civil and criminal. The business of this court was afterwards divided amongst the four courts as they now exist, of Chancery, Queen's Bench, Common Pleas, and Exchequer.

The simplicity of the Saxon law was lost soon after the conquest. William introduced the Norman law, pleadings were made in French, and the procedures of the courts became a labyrinth scarcely to be understood by study and application. The common law possesses much of the same character to the present hour. The Norman conqueror, however, must have the credit of effecting that in England which was done on the continent at a much later period ; introducing the right of appeal from all other courts to that of the sovereign. This allegation tended to increase royal authority ; yet inferior courts were merely kept in awe, and oppression to a great extent prevented. The king's judges likewise became itine-

rant, trying all causes on their circuits throughout the kingdom, and hereby encouraging suitors to make an appeal.

The power of the sovereign was further increased by a large revenue. This arose from the crown lands comprehending many manors, and most cities in the kingdom. The king, not satisfied with the stated rents, claimed a right of levying talliages, or taxes, on the inhabitants within his *demesne*. Tolls were likewise levied on the sale of all goods, and customs exacted from all imports; land also was subject to a tax. The royal revenue was further increased by *escheats*, or seizures; from default of heirs; from crimes, or breach of duty; from *amerciaments* and *oblatas*, or fines and presents. No royal favour could be conferred without the payment of a fine, or tendering a present. These were often of a most extraordinary character. The county of Norfolk, as an example, paid a sum of money to the king that they might be fairly dealt with; and the borough of Yarmouth did the same, that the royal charters which had been granted them might not be violated. Instances of this kind might be quoted to a large extent. Such was the sovereign's prerogative, combined with his rapacity, that almost every crime or trespass might be atoned for by money. And what made the matter still worse was, that the fines imposed were subject to no rule or statute; and were sometimes exacted so oppressively as to occasion the total ruin of the unfortunate delinquent. But on no class of individuals did this fall more severely, or more frequently, than on the Jewish population, who were out of the protection of the law. On one occasion, by an order from the court, the Jews throughout the kingdom were thrown into prison, and 66,000 marks extorted for their liberation. Licorica, widow of Daniel, a Jew at Oxford, was required to pay 6000 marks,

six opulent Jews being compelled to become securities for the payment of that amount. Henry III. borrowed 5000 marks of the Earl of Cornwall, and consigned over to him all the Jews in England for its repayment. These facts would, in our times, hardly appear credible, were they not well authenticated by cotemporary writers.

The authority assumed by the early Norman princes was so great, that every edict of the king, issued with the approval of the privy council,* had the full force of law. Notwithstanding this, it is apparent that the king's authority was restrained in various ways; until, by gradual means, laws were passed which exempted British subjects from royal caprice, and established their liberties upon a firm and secure basis. One of the chief steps towards such a state of things was, doubtless, the **GREAT CHARTER** obtained from King John. The barons had a kind of sovereignty within their own territory, and often exercised a power even more oppressive than that of the king himself. Yet this had the effect of laying considerable restraint upon the influence of the crown, especially so, when the barons acted in concert. The struggles also of an intolerant church for unlimited power has already, more than once, been mentioned, and which often formed a rampart against the tyranny of kings. Although the Conqueror ever maintained a watchful eye over the encroachments of the church, yet, in many cases, he thought it a matter of expediency to augment its power. He permitted the clergy to act more independently of the laity than in the Saxon times. Ecclesiastical causes were tried in spiritual courts only, which so exalted the power of the clergy, that of 60,215 knights' fees in England, 28,015 were under the church and its vassals. With the feudal system, the Normans introduced the right

of primogeniture, and the use of surnames, both unknown, or nearly so, in England before this period. Besides the absurd methods of trial by the cross, or ordeal, the new absurdity of trial by single combat became a regular part of our jurisprudence, and which continued in practice until the reign of Elizabeth. In legal single combats, an oath was taken that the challenger did not carry about him any herb, spell, or enchantment, for procuring victory. No traces of chivalry can be found among our Saxon forefathers. These romantic notions were imported by the Normans. The valorous knight fought not only in his own quarrels, but in that of the innocent and helpless also. The fair sex were specially under the guardianship of his valour, and his achievements in the protection of females were long celebrated by both poets and romance writers. This led the credulity of the age to believe in giants, enchanters, dragons, spells, and enchantments. A spurious Christianity, with the aid of a superstitious priesthood, too easily ingrafted these absurdities upon itself.

We have gone into these particulars to shew our readers the true position of the times when the Great Charter was given, and which eventually gave rise to order and justice in the administration of our affairs. The Charter established nothing new; it merely guarded against tyrannical practices, restraining alike the sovereign and the barons, and was the first grand step towards the regular distribution of justice, and the equal protection of every citizen. At this epoch the constitutional liberty of Englishmen was secured.

From the preceding remarks, however, our readers must not conclude that no future struggle for dominant powers continued. The contrary is the fact. The limits of royal prerogative were still undefined; and the very nature of the

Romish hierarchy is to get the ascendancy. Even the reformed church of England has ever sought the mastery; and, in our own happy times, the *floundering*s of several prelatrical *canonists* have shewn to the laity what they may expect if churchmen become ascendant.

It is, therefore, no matter of surprise that a weak and vacillating prince, like Henry III., the son and successor of John, should, during a long reign of fifty-six years, make many attempts to destroy the liberties of his people, and govern by his own arbitrary will. Immediately on the demise of King John, William, Earl of Pembroke, declared for the young king, and had him crowned. Many of the barons, also, deserted Louis, and espoused the royal cause. Louis was at length shut up in London, and induced to capitulate upon honourable terms. Amongst other conditions, he stipulated that the *rights* and *privileges* of the city of London should be confirmed. The citizens, grateful for this favour in their behalf, generously lent their protector 5000 marks to discharge his debts prior to his return to France.

Peace being restored in 1217, the new sovereign entered London with public demonstrations of joy. But the king determined forthwith to punish the citizens for the part they had taken in the late disturbance, and levied a fine of one-fifteenth of their personal estates, under the pretext of confirming their ancient immunities. It is, however, but justice to add that, the king not having arrived at his majority, this, and several subsequent acts of oppression, must be referred rather to the protector (the Earl of Pembroke) than to the king.

About this period, the City of London became possessed of certain lands in Middlesex, then partially disforested.

The gaol of Newgate likewise became subjected to the city authority, and was put into repair by the citizens, in compliance with the king's order. The lawless character of the Londoners at this time may be learnt by an outrage committed by them, in 1221, on the inhabitants of Westminster. At a wrestling match, played at St. Giles's in the Fields, victory was declared in favour of the Londoners; a second match was proposed for the 1st of August, of the same year, which being accepted, the citizens of London were set upon by a number of armed men, and most wantonly handled and put to flight. The injured populace meditated revenge, and, headed by Constantine Fitz-Ornulph, proceeded to the houses of the steward and abbot of Westminster, pulled down their houses, and committed other outrages. The abbot himself would have been murdered but for his timely escape at the rear of his house. For this outbreak, the mayor, and some of the principal citizens, were summoned, by Hubert de Burgh, at this time the chief justiciary, to appear before him. Inquiry being made as to the instigators of the late riot, Constantine, with more courage than prudence, declared that he was one, and that what had been done was quite right, and that he was ready to abide by the consequence. In this his nephew, and one Geoffry concurred. The justiciary, in consequence, detained these three, dismissing the rest, and whom he ordered to be hanged the next morning. Many of the rioters were afterwards seized, and, by Hubert's orders, had their feet and hands cut off. The mayor was degraded, a *custos*, or guard of thirty persons, placed over them, and the citizens fined in a large sum to obtain a reconciliation.

All this being done without any form of trial, it was not without reason that parliament (a name now met with for the

first time) which met in 1224, discussed this subject, and becoming uneasy, addressed his majesty to confirm those liberties which he had sworn to maintain. The king, accordingly, in a full council, which was held at Westminster, in 1225, confirmed the Magna Charta. The king also gave the City of London the right of a common seal.

By a papal bull, in the same year, Henry was declared to have reached his majority, and assumed the reins of government. The first act of the king after this event toward the citizens of London was most ungracious. He extorted from them 5000 marks, being the same amount which had been lent to King Louis. He furthermore exacted from them a fifteenth of their personal estates, under a pretence of granting additional charters. Two years after, a very large sum was demanded by way of ransom, or a means of redeeming the king's favour. This was soon followed by the levy of another ransom, amounting to £20,000.

The year 1236 is memorable for the entry of his majesty and Queen Eleanor into London, after the solemnization of their marriage at Canterbury. The mayor, aldermen, and citizens met them on horseback, and conducted them into the city, the streets of which were adorned in the most gorgeous manner. Pageants and shows occupied the residue of the day, to which succeeded a brilliant illumination at nightfall. But still the king's affection towards the citizens could not be obtained. He did not forget their attachment to Louis, and the part they had taken against the late king, his father. This dislike, it was believed, had been encouraged by the justiciary, Hubert de Burgh, though after this officer's disgrace, which happened at this time, the conduct of the king continued much the same. It may be well to notice that the custom of tendering six horse

shoes, with the necessary nails, at the swearing in of the sheriffs of London before the chief baron of the Exchequer, now first originated. One Walter de Bruin, a farrier, having purchased a piece of ground, in the Strand, of the crown, subject to this peculiar rent, the land purchased afterwards was granted to the city.

During the greater part of Henry's reign, exactions upon the city were continually being reiterated. The pope, likewise, asserted a spiritual authority which was at once degrading and expensive. Any alleged fault of the citizens was visited, on the part of the king, either with an infraction of their liberties, or a pecuniary mulct. In like manner, the Roman pontiff, by his legate, Cardinal Otho, exerted a despotic domination over both clergy and laity, and which was only to be averted by the payment of money. The year 1240, at which period we have now arrived, was memorable for two facts, though very different in their nature. Extensive repairs having been made to the Tower, the king ordered that accommodation should be made, in what was afterwards called the *Lions' Tower*, for the reception of wild beasts, some of which had been presented by the Emperor Frederic. The second fact is, the consecration of St. Paul's cathedral, which had been for many years rebuilding.

The mayor and commonalty of London, in 1245, purchased *Queenhithe* from Richard, Earl of Cornwall, the king's brother. The citizens agreed to pay a quit rent of £50 per annum, for ever, to the said earl and his heirs, the purchase being confirmed by royal charter. But this transaction seems to have done them an injury in the eyes of the king. The Parliament, finding that his majesty's extravagances continued, and that the cravings of Rome were also insatiable,

determined to put a check upon both. To the pope they sent letters, sealed with the seal of the City of London, protesting against his exorbitant demands; and, to the king, they positively refused to grant any further aid. But Henry was not thus to be treated with impunity. He forthwith dissolved the great Council, or Parliament, and determined to supply his present necessities by selling or pawning the crown jewels; and, on being told that he could dispose of them in London, his majesty, with more than his usual asperity, indignantly replied, “That the clownish Londoners, who call themselves barons, and abound in all things, are an immense treasure of themselves;” and farther, that “he was of opinion, if the treasure of Augustus Cæsar were to be sold, *the city of London could purchase it.*” The king, moreover, granted an annual fair to be held at Tothill, Westminster, with an injunction to the citizens to carry on no trade, either within or without doors, during its continuance. To get this grant reversed, the Londoners agreed to pay a considerable sum of money; but, at Christmas, 1249, the king and his household came and *lived upon them*, extorting large new year’s gifts; and, on his removal thence, besides encouraging his servants to take goods out of the citizens shops by force, he compelled them to pay him £2000. Many of the citizens, finding that honour, justice, promises, and oaths, were alike disregarded by their sovereign, withdrew, in despair, into the country. Henry fearing that the city might become depopulated, once more played the hypocrite, ordering the city authorities to attend him at Westminster, and, in the presence of a large assembly of the nobility and gentry, promised never again to oppress his good citizens of London. This took place in 1250.

Although the claims which Henry made upon the city

might, in many instances, be considered oppressive, vexatious, or frivolous ; yet it must be confessed that the king had reason to be jealous of the influence which the Londoners had exerted over the general policy of the country. London had uniformly taken part with the barons in curtailing the royal prerogative, and bringing the king's power within definite and moderate limits. A free constitution, in most countries, has been a progressive work, requiring many a struggle 'ere it can be completed, and the citizens of London had already felt the benefit of chartered liberty for the purpose of appeal, when wrong was inflicted upon them. Their motto had already become that in which every Englishman still glories—*liber non liberatus—free by right, not by favour or emancipation*. In pursuance of such a purpose, it deserves notice, that whenever the citizens yielded to any unreasonable and oppressive act of their sovereign, it was made a condition that no such act should be repeated, or some royal assurance given, acknowledging the liberty of the subject. In demanding various sums of money, from time to time, the king, on one occasion, descended so low as to require the citizens to pay 4d. a day for the maintenance of his white bear and its keeper in the Tower ; and also to provide a muzzle, an iron chain, and a cord for the same ; and to build a stall and to provide necessaries for an elephant and his keeper. But, in the next year (1252) a charter was granted them confirmatory of their former privileges. A short extract must suffice :—“ That our mayor and citizens of London may have and hold all their liberties and free customs which they had in the time of King Henry our grandfather. —” The charter concludes thus :—“ And we forbid, upon our forfeiture, that none presume hencefrom to vex or disquiet the said citizens contrary to this liberty, and our grant.” Such charters were designed

more to protect them from the rapacity of the king himself than any other persons. Yet, only two years after this, the mayor and sheriffs, under the pretext that some arrears due to the king remained unpaid, were, by the king's order, committed to the *Marshalsea*.

The rights and liberties of the citizens were again infringed upon in 1257. Sir Hugh Bigot, one of the judges, held a court of assize in London, by order of the king, in which many things were done incompatible with the franchises and immunities of the city. Amongst others, the historians of those times instance the degradation committed upon "divers of the city bakers," of being drawn through the city upon tumbrels, or dung-carts, for the alleged offence of selling bread short in weight. Such outrages being repeated, the Parliament, which met the next year at Oxford, came to certain vigorous resolutions to prevent the like for the future; and which the king, and the prince his son, afterwards Edward I., were required to confirm and sign. The Parliament, moreover, sent commissioners to London, desiring to know whether the citizens would adhere to, and faithfully observe, and vigorously defend, the said statutes, giving their utmost assistance to the barons, should occasion offer. The citizens not merely assented to this proposal, giving a written covenant, under their common seal, but likewise took a solemn and mutual oath, pledging themselves to maintain and defend them against every innovator. The first result of this was, that the king's purveyors were obliged to pay ready money for every thing they had in London, two tuns of wine out of every ship only excepted. The compact thus made with the barons, constituting the Parliament, soon led to consequences of paramount importance. A calm, indeed, had followed the passing

of the constitutions of Oxford, and his majesty took the opportunity of visiting his foreign possessions. Before his return, a quarrel between Prince Edward and the Duke of Gloucester, occasioned some disturbance in the city ; but which was suppressed by the exertions of the mayor, assisted by the regency.

The king quickly returned ; and feeling uneasy under the restraints which had been laid upon him, sought to separate the citizens from the interest of the Parliament, by offering, amongst other promises, that those who entered his service should be maintained at his expence. This, to a certain extent, seemed to answer the king's purpose ; but an unlucky accident, which happened, completely put an end to this proposal. Prince Edward broke open the treasury of the monastery of the knights' templars, and took away £1000. This sacrilege, for such it was considered, so exasperated the citizens that they ran to arms ; and a letter having been received, by the mayor and citizens, from the barons, already in arms, under their general, Simon de Mountfort, Earl of Leicester, inviting them to assist in the recovery of their rights, according to the provisions made at Oxford, they joined the malcontents without a moment's delay.

The citizens determined to take more efficient means for securing the city, and accordingly they appointed a strong guard for day service, and a patrol of horse and foot by night. This led to the permanent establishment of a city watch in every ward, to prevent night robberies—an establishment only lately superseded by the metropolitan police. About this time, likewise, an important cause was decided against the abbot of Westminster, whereby the sheriffs of London had their right of entering houses in the town of Westminster, for the purpose of summoning or distraining, as the case might require.

Henry, finding himself in a dilemma, proposed an accommodation, which was accepted by the armed barons and citizens, with the understanding that the constitutions of Oxford should be confirmed by royal charter. In this, however, they had reckoned without their host. The king only wished to gain time, he therefore refused; and Leicester, throwing himself into the city, engaged the Londoners to unite with him in giving the king battle in *Lambeth Fields*. This, however, was happily avoided by a compromise, the whole matter being, by mutual consent, assigned to the arbitration of Louis, King of France. This prince was confessedly the most extraordinary man of his age. His love of justice was pre-eminently remarkable and praiseworthy; his religion thoroughly superstitious; and his valour ferocious. He died whilst on a crusade; and, after an interval of scarcely thirty years, was canonized by Boniface VIII.—his name being blazoned amidst the Christian legends of the Romish breviary. The award of Louis was given in the king's favour, and the constitutions of Oxford pronounced null and void. The barons and citizens, disconsorted by the award, had recourse again to arms, and the kingdom became involved in civil war. Henry's interests were further strengthened by the approval of the pontiff, who issued a bull of excommunication against Leicester and other barons, sending the same to England by Cardinal Guido. But this spiritual *bchemoth* met with more opposition than he expected. The haughty Leicester menaced him with instant death if he dared to set his foot in England. Guido, therefore, very prudently committed this errand to the bishops of Winchester, London, and Worcester, whom he had met with in France. Armed with the thunders of the church, the prelates arrived off the coast of Kent,

where, being boarded by a vessel from the cinque ports, *the bull*, in the scuffle, was seized, torn to atoms, and thrown into the sea. Whether the prelates were assenting parties to such a consummation is not quite certain. This ended the dispute for the present; and Leicester, with the wisdom of the serpent, appealed from the legate to the pontiff himself.

Into the details of the war, our limits forbid us to enter. After a variety of encounters with the king's troops, in many of which the Londoners bore a conspicuous part, Henry's cause, by the battle of Evesham, and the death of Leicester, became triumphant. To the discomfiture of the royal army during this contest, may be attributed the present *constitution of the House of Commons*. By the plan of government now introduced into the national council (in 1264) it was agreed that every county and town should send deputies to represent them in Parliament. This proved the great means of breaking up the feudal system, and establishing a representative form of government.

London, however, was made to smart for its late rebellion. The king, with the consent of his Parliament, divested the city of its liberties, removed their *posts* and *chains*, tokens of freedom, into the Tower; the estates of many of the principal citizens were likewise confiscated, and their moveable goods and chattels distributed amongst the king's retainers. The mayor, and forty of the principal men of the city were sent to Windsor as prisoners, where, it is asserted, that "they had hard fare, and worse lodging." The sons of others were sent to the Tower, as hostages for the future good behaviour of their parents. The city magistrates were dismissed, and five guardians appointed to keep the peace.

It was quite impossible that such a state of things could

last. The citizens, fearing total ruin, applied to the king in the most humble manner, to know what he required as an atonement for their past offences. Henry, at first, demanded 60,000 marks ; but, at length, he agreed to reduce it to 20,000. The king hereupon granted another charter, which declares, “ That we have and do remit, forgive, and acquit, for us and our heirs, the citizens of London, and their heirs, of all crimes and trespasses whatsoever ; and that the said citizens, as formerly, shall enjoy all their rights and liberties.” This document is dated “ in the 50th year of our reign.” His majesty, the next day, sent orders to the three seneschals, who had the command of the city, to discharge all the prisoners, with certain exceptions. The seneschals likewise were dismissed ; and the citizens permitted to choose William Fitz-Richard for their mayor, and Robert le Ford and Gregory de Rockesly, sheriffs.

Scarcely had this storm blown over, when the Londoners were again involved in trouble. Gilbert de Clare, Earl of Gloucester, under pretence of serving the king against France, raised troops, part of which he obtained leave to quarter in London. His rebellious intentions, however, were soon discovered, and every attempt was made by the mayor to preserve the peace of the city, but in vain. A number of the dissolute populace joined the earl’s army, committing many depredations. The king at length came against them with a numerous army ; a challenge being sent from the king to meet him upon Hounslow Heath to settle their differences by force. This, though accepted, the earl thought proper afterwards to decline. The king brought his troops to the neighbourhood of Stratford, making several attempts to take the city by assault, but in vain. Some of the rebel party ravaged the counties

of Kent and Surrey, not even sparing the abbey church of Westminster, which they defaced and plundered. Four of these marauders were taken, and the Earl of Derby finding them to have left his service, they were, by his orders, tied up in sacks and thrown into the Thames. Gloucester, reduced to the last extremity, made such submission to the king as to be accepted; and in this accommodation the citizens of London were also included. The king granted them a general pardon, but took care to exact from them 1000 marks for the demolition of his brother Richard's house at Isleworth, during Leicester's rebellion. In confirmation of this another charter was granted the citizens, and which was not signed alone by the king, but witnessed likewise by Prince Edward, and the principal nobility of the court. This happened in the year 1268, being the fifty-second year of the king's reign.

Two events which happened this same year must just be noticed. The one was a difference between the goldsmiths and the merchant-tailors. They determined to settle their disputes by combat, and accordingly met by night, to the number of more than five hundred, completely armed, and engaged with such fury that some were killed, and many wounded. The sheriffs, at length, with great difficulty, suppressed this outrage. Thirteen of the delinquents were afterwards tried and hanged. The second event was the holding of a national synod at London, to which all the prelates of England, Wales, Scotland, and Ireland were summoned. Othobon, the pope's legate, presided. The canons passed by this council were of great authority, being the rule of discipline for the English church. Collier, in his Ecclesiastical History, avers that many of them are still in force, forming a part of our canon law. If so, for the peace and prosperity

of the Church of England, the sooner they are revised by authority the better.

The city being now, happily, at peace, his majesty conferred its government upon Prince Edward, together with its revenues. Edward favoured the Londoners by obtaining from the king the restoration of their ancient right of choosing their own magistrates. The citizens, accordingly, chose John Adrien for their mayor, and Philip Taylor and Walter Potter their sheriffs. These were presented to the king, at Westminster, by the prince himself, where also they took the accustomed oaths. The king expressed himself so well pleased with the citizens, that he once more confirmed their rights and immunities by another charter. The grateful citizens presented the king with 100 marks, and the prince with 500. Towards the middle of the next year, the city was involved in great distress, occasioned principally by heavy rains. The Thames, in many places, overflowed its banks, doing immense damage, by the destruction of houses and the growing crops. A famine ensued. Wheat was sold for £6, 8s. the quarter, or more than £60 of the present money. Many of the poor, it is said, actually ate their own children. It is, however, apparent, that notwithstanding the numerous exactions made upon the citizens, and occasional calamities of different kinds, yet that London continued to flourish, being the very centre of all commercial transactions, both foreign and domestic. The part, likewise, which London took in the politics of the country is very apparent. In London, also, the arts both of war and peace, were alike encouraged.

Prince Edward now found himself at liberty to enter into the fashionable school of war, by an expedition into the Holy Land. On his arrival at Tunis, he found that his friend Louis,

King of France, was already dead. The prince, notwithstanding, proceeded to Palestine, where he evinced the greatest valour, his very name producing fear in his enemies. In the meantime the king, his father, died. Edward was in Sicily, on his return home, when the news of his father's death reached him, and at which he was most deeply affected. About the same time, a messenger brought him word that a son which his wife Eleanor, of Castile, had borne him at Acre, was dead, and expressing less apparent sorrow at this than at the news from England, the King of Sicily expressed his surprise at the same. Edward replied, with deep emotion, “The loss of my son I may hope to repair; but the *loss of a father is irreparable!*”

King Henry's death being known, care was taken to proclaim Edward as his successor; and to swear allegiance to him. The great council of the nation also met to provide means for the public safety. Walter Gifford, Archbishop of York, the Earl of Cornwall, and the Earl of Gloucester were appointed, during King Edward's absence, the guardians of the realm.

The king finding matters quiet at home did not hasten his return, but dispatched letters commanding that for the wrongs which the Flemings had done, they should by proclamation be expelled the city of London, on pain of forfeiture of their effects. On the king's return, in 1274, he was received into London with the greatest pomp and splendour. The outsides of the houses being ornamented with the richest silks and tapestry, the conduits made to run with the choicest wines, and gold and silver coins profusely distributed amongst the populace.

The character of the new sovereign soon became apparent

by some vigorous measures which were taken for the suppression of abuses in the sale of provisions. The mayor and sheriffs were required to punish bakers selling short weight, with forfeiture of goods for the first offence, to be followed by imprisonment and pillory. Millers for bad measure were to be carried in a tumbrel or dust cart, through the streets, exposed to the derision of the people. Hucksters of fowls were forbidden to go out of the city, to meet those bringing poultry, but that purchases should be made in the city, and after three o'clock, and not before. Hucksters of fish, in like manner, were not allowed to forestal their purchases, or to have any partnership with foreigners bringing fish to market; and that no fish should be sold after the second day, on forfeiture of goods and fines, at the mercy of the king. The magistrates, likewise, with the consent of a *folkmore*, or common council, prohibited a market being held on London bridge, or elsewhere, excepting in such places as were appointed for that purpose.

In 1275, the convent of *Black Friars* was founded by Robert Kilwarby, Archbishop of Canterbury. Religious orders, chiefly Dominicans and Franciscans, had of late greatly increased, being in fact the regular troops of the Romish church. The king during the same year, granted the citizens a duty on certain merchandize, for making some alterations in the city, directed a letter to the mayor and corporation, commanding them to finish the wall which was then in progress, near the mansion of the Friars' Preachers, or Black Friars, and to build a good and comely tower at the head of the same, within the water of the Thames, “ wherein,” adds the king, “ we may be received and tarry with honor, to our ease and satisfaction.”

The year 1278 is rendered memorable by a lawless and cruel massacre of the Jewish people. Amongst many evils which had existed during the last reign, one universally complained of was, the adulteration and clipping of the current coin. This crime, requiring more skill than the English of that period were supposed to possess, the imputation fell upon the Jews. Edward's prepossession against that people was always great, and which had much augmented by his expedition into Palestine. He had there learned the summary manner of dealing with heretics; and his utmost fury was poured out upon this race of unbelievers. He ordered that all the Jews throughout England should be seized and thrown into prison in one day, and regardless of either age or sex, two hundred and eighty of these victims were hanged in London only, besides those who suffered in other parts of the kingdom. The houses and goods of great multitudes were sold and confiscated, and as if to add insult to injury, the king directed that a moiety of this money should be distributed among such Jews as declared their willingness to abjure the faith of their forefathers, and receive the faith of their persecutors. But resentment, rather than a fear of poverty or death, generally prevailed, and the proposal was rejected with that contempt which it deserved. Christians have not now to be told that the conversion of the Jews is not to be consummated by such horrid means as these. But the brutal king had only done his murderous work by halves. He resolved to purge the kingdom entirely of that hated race, seizing the whole of their property, excepting a very small sum to bear their charges into foreign countries. But the inhabitants of the cinque ports being, if possible, more ferocious and bigotted than their sovereign, robbed them of this pittance, and threw many of them into

the sea. About fifteen thousand Jews were at once robbed of their effects, and banished the kingdom.

Application was made to the king in 1281 for his assistance in repairing London bridge, which had fallen into a ruinous condition; and his majesty, by letters patent, empowered the bridge-keeper to ask and receive the charity of all his well-disposed subjects throughout the kingdom. This was followed by letters to the clergy, recommending their aid towards this work. A toll was likewise granted for three years. Every passenger over the bridge, with any saleable commodity, to pay *one farthing*; every horseman carrying merchandize *one penny*, and for every saleable pack *one halfpenny*. The bad state of the bridge had arisen, in the first instance, from a fire, and afterwards from a mal-appropriation of monies raised for its repair. King John had taken the custody of the bridge from the mayor and given it to faiar West, and his successors; and Henry III. had conferred this right to his queen consort, but who, it is believed, pocketed the money arising from its rents, and suffered the bridge to run to ruin.

The Jews had quietly and imperceptibly returned to London; for in the year last mentioned, the king permitted them to appoint *Hayinus* as their high priest, or presiding rabbi, with the same form and authority as Rabbi Jacob had possessed during the reign of King John. But as if the seed of Abraham were never to have a place for the soles of their feet, Archbishop Peckham resolved to become their persecutor. He wrote letters in 1285, to the Bishop of London, to pull down all their synagogues. This unrighteous work proceeded to such extremities that the king, whose hands were still wet with Jewish blood, had much ado to prevail with these *spiritual vipers* to spare even one synagogue in London. The splendour of

their religious services was lessened, many of their ceremonies being prohibited. But at the expiration of five years, the Jews were once more banished the kingdom, under penalty of the loss of their property ; and their only synagogue, situated at the northern corner of the Old Jewry, given to a society of monks, denominated *Fratres de penitentiâ Jesu*.

The government of Edward being vigorous in its character, the city of London, for the most part, wore a promising aspect during this reign, with occasional interruptions. The mayor and aldermen having been summoned to appear before the lord-treasurer, they determined to do so in their private dress, which so incensed his lordship that he committed the mayor and several others, to prison for this contempt. Whereupon the king, either really or pretendedly, expressed his displeasure by displacing the mayor, and appointed a *custos*, in his room. The king kept the government of the city in his own hands for twelve years. One of the first consequences of this change was, that the streets became infested with robbers and murderers. For the suppression of these outrages, various stringent resolutions were taken. Among others, that no stranger should wear a sword, or be seen abroad after the ringing of the *corfeu-bell*; that all taverns should close at the sound of the same bell; that no fencing school should be kept within the city; that diligent search should be made, in the different wards, for the apprehension of offenders; that no person, not free of the city, should reside therein; and that those of suspicious character should give security for their good behaviour. Thomas Pywelesdon, and fifty-seven others, on suspicion of being disaffected to government, were banished for life. Foreign merchants were permitted, after a time, to settle in London, and to sell their goods without a broker; but,

being charged with selling bad goods, and of short weight, they were, after a long imprisonment, fined in £1000.

Richard Gravesend, Bishop of London, having represented to his majesty that some of the citizens had entered the chambers of some of the clergy, and committed them like felons to the *Tunne*, a prison built by Henry de Walleyes, sometime mayor, for the safe custody of *night-walkers*, the king commanded that henceforth no watch should enter the chambers of any clergyman under the forfeiture of £20. The fact is, that the clergy had been exempted from the interference of the civil law, having been tried in their own court, according to the canon law. This practice the king, in the present instance, thought it expedient to connive at. An outbreak in the city ensued, the *Tunne* prison was broken open, and several of the prisoners set at liberty. For this breach of the peace, some of the rioters were severely punished, and a fine of 20,000 marks imposed upon the city. The king, however, having returned victoriously from Scotland, and intending shortly to humble the clergy, pretended to be so much pleased with the conduct of the Londoners, that in consideration of the said fine, with an addition of 3000 marks more, which should be paid into the exchequer, restored to them the power of electing their mayor, and confirmed this, and all their ancient privileges by royal charter, bearing date May, 1295.

The usurpation of the clergy had long been very offensive to the king, and which, though he was, in truth, a very stanch churchman, he determined to arrest. Indeed, the whole of Christendom had been made to shake to its very centre by the fulminations of the Roman pontiff. But his authority was already on the *wane*; and, prior to the period at which we have now arrived, very serious thoughts had been enter-

tained of separating the church of England from all foreign spiritual despotism. Even the clergy had languished under the withering influence of papal power. Edward, unlike his father, was a man of decision. His own sovereignty he had resolved to maintain in the church and in the state. The Archbishop of Canterbury, without the direct authority of his majesty, convoked a synod of his province, to meet in St. Paul's church. The king sent a peremptory message, forbidding them to pass any constitution prejudicial to royal prerogative, or to the public tranquillity, or that would infringe upon the rights of any under his government and protection. He further demanded a fifth part of all their *moveables*. This was both unjust and hazardous. But the king was not to be deterred from his purpose. Pope Boniface VIII., a man of a lofty and enterprising spirit, combined with prudence, now filled the papal chair. He had lately issued a *general bull*, prohibiting all princes to levy any tax upon the clergy without his consent, and forbidding all clergymen to submit to such imposition: to this the usual *anathema* was annexed to each party. This bull, it is believed, was procured by the archbishop, with whom Edward had now to contend. Under the shelter of such a spiritual *firman*, the synod refused their assent to the king's demand. Edward, on his part, continued firm. He ordered that all the granaries and barns belonging to the clergy should be locked up, and prohibited that any rent should be paid them until compliance was made to his request. The archbishop, in a conference with his majesty, told him plainly that the clergy owed obedience to two sovereigns, one spiritual, the other temporal; and that, in conscience, they could not comply with his commands, in opposition to the express prohibition of the sovereign pontiff.

Such plain dealing, from any but the clergy, would of itself have settled the dispute. The king, however, told the synod that since they refused to support the civil government, they were unworthy of receiving any benefit from it, and that he would put them out of the protection of the law. This extreme measure was carried into immediate operation. The judges were ordered not to receive any cause which might be brought before them by the clergy; to do justice to every man against them; and to do them justice against nobody. Such a step instantly reduced them to a most wretched condition. At home, they were in danger of starvation; abroad, of being robbed and insulted. The primate himself was attacked on the highway, stripped of his equipage, and obliged, with a single servant, to retire to the house of a country clergyman. The king, in the meanwhile, looked on with perfect indifference. The excommunications of the prelates were disregarded; until, at length, the spirits of the clergy became quite broken. They found it necessary to submit; and though not approved by the archbishop, the clergy were obliged to give up a fourth of their goods for the benefit of the country.

The money thus extorted from the clergy coming in slowly, and the king being anxious to prosecute a foreign war, he determined upon other arbitrary measures. He limited the merchants in the quantity of wool which should be exported, levying a heavy duty of forty shillings a sack, or above one-third of the value of the commodity. He seized the residue of the wool, as well as all the leather in the kingdom, and converted them to his own use. He required the sheriffs to furnish him, from each county, with 2000 quarters of wheat, and as many oats, allowing them to seize the same wherever

found : cattle also was seized, without either permission or payment. The king likewise required the attendance of every proprietor of land, though such land was not held of the crown, hereby breaking up the entire feudal system. He appointed Humphrey, Earl of Hereford, constable; and Roger Bigot, Earl of Norfolk, mareschal of England, to take the command of the army which he was preparing to send into Gascony, proposing to go himself into Flanders. But to this proposal the two barons gave a flat denial, alleging that their duty was only to serve the king when he himself was present, and that they were not bound to quit the shores of England. The king protested against this, but in vain. He ultimately determined to suspend the prosecution of the war in Guienne, and take the command of the army in person, which had embarked for Flanders.

The refractory barons determined, nevertheless, to press their claims upon the king, and accordingly, while his majesty was in the very act of embarkation, they delivered him a forcible remonstrance, in which they complained of the violations of the Great Charter, and that of forests ; the violent seizure of corn, and other articles ; and the imposition of forty shillings a sack on wool allowed to be exported. To these grievances they required immediate redress. The king thinking it expedient to conceal his resentment, merely answered, that the greater part of his council, or Parliament, being then absent, he could not, without their advice, enter upon matters of such importance. The barons, not satisfied with this reply, determined to obtain an explicit compliance. When summoned to attend Parliament, they assembled with a large body of troops, and required that the gates of the city of London should be committed to their custody. This being complied with,

they demanded a solemn confirmation of the two charters; that in future, no taxes should be levied without the consent of Parliament; and that past offences should all be forgiven. The Prince of Wales and his council, favoured by the injured primate, assented to these proposals, and which, after a short delay, Edward thought it necessary to confirm. On the king's return, they again received a pure and absolute confirmation, without subterfuge; and three knights were chosen, by each county, to punish every violation of the charters. Thus the English nation, with the assistance of the citizens of London, obtained from the ablest, the most warlike, and the most ambitious of all their princes, the final settlement of the *Great Charter*, and which was never afterwards formally disputed.

During the year 1304, Geoffrey de Hartlepole, one of the aldermen, was chosen as the recorder of London, this being the first time we read of such an officer. The common council had been previously established. About this time, with the consent of the king, the city regulated the prices of provisions. Some notion may be formed of the present state of things by the list for prices:—For a best hen, $3\frac{1}{2}$ d., a goose, 3d. to 5d., a partridge, $3\frac{1}{2}$ d., a pheasant, 4d., two woodcocks, $1\frac{1}{2}$ d., a swan, 3s., a peacock, 1s., a best rabbit, 3d., a hare, $3\frac{1}{2}$ d., lampreys, per 100, 6d. to 8d., eels, per 25, 2d., smelts, per 100, 1d., a quarter of wheat, 4s., a bull, 7s. 6d., a cow, 6s., a fat mutton, 1s., a ewe sheep, 8d., a lamb, 4d. to 6d. Millers were restricted to the rate of one halfpenny for grinding a quarter of corn. Other things were at as low a rate. The salary of the chief justice of the Court of King's Bench was 50 marks; of the chief justice of the Common Pleas, and of the chief baron, 100 marks.

The next year, London was disgraced by witnessing one

of those heart-rending scenes which but too often occurred in the earlier parts of our history. William Wallace, the valiant and renowned champion of Scotland, having been taken prisoner in the field of battle, whilst defending the rights of his country, was, in defiance of every law, ordered for execution by the king, which sentence was carried into effect in the most brutal manner; for, besides being hanged in Smithfield, he was also quartered, his head stuck upon a pole, and fixed upon London Bridge. This was one result of that unjust war which had been waging against Scotland, and which the king continued to prosecute with his accustomed energy.

In 1306, the city of London appears to have been in such high favour with the king, that he appointed Sir John Blunt, their mayor, to accompany the Prince of Wales in the expedition against Scotland. In the absence of the chief magistrate, the citizens appointed four guardians, to whom the care of the city was entrusted. During the same year, a proclamation was issued by Edward, prohibiting the burning of sea-coal in London, under severe penalties. This stringent measure was adopted in consequence of complaints having been made by the nobility and gentry, alleging that the health of the inhabitants was endangered by the noisome smell, and clouds of smoke occasioned by the combustion of coals. At this time, also, the city was much pestered by robbers. The king, now in Scotland, directed his writ to the mayor and sheriffs, commanding them to observe the statute of Westminster in all its articles. This being considered as an invasion of the liberties of the city, a firm and spirited reply was made to his majesty on the subject, declaring that felons, and other disorderly persons, had been arrested, and that their best endeavours

should be constantly employed for the same purpose; but that to observe the statutes to which the king referred would be an infringement upon the rights and customs of London. The king being determined rigorously to continue the war against Scotland, ordered the city of London, as a composition for the twentieth part of its goods, to pay into his majesty's exchequer, the sum of 2000 marks.

But in the midst of these active preparations for the entire subjugation of Scotland, the messenger of death arrested the king's further progress. He was taken ill in the neighbourhood of Carlisle, and after a very short illness died. This event took place in 1307, the king being in the sixty-ninth year of his age, and the thirty-fifth of his reign. Edward I. may be justly regarded, considering the epoch at which he lived, one of the greatest and best of our sovereigns. He has justly been denominated the English *Justinian*; and, as contrasted with the weak and pusillanimous Edward II., his son and successor, the city of London in particular, and the English nation generally, had great reason to lament his death. Edward II. was in every respect the very reverse of his father, and ultimately, by his weak and stupid conduct, brought the most direful misery upon his own person.

He began his reign unpropitiously. A balance of £83, 11s. being unpaid of the 2000 marks due to the late king, Edward issued an exchequer writ to distrain the goods of the citizens for the same. Not content with this, he issued another writ against the aldermen, requiring them to account in the exchequer for the *tallage* lately collected. This, although a sorry beginning for a new reign, the citizens seemed willing to overlook; for the young king and his queen, the furious, intriguing, and faithless Isabella, daughter of Charles V. King

of France, was received into the city with the greatest demonstrations of joy.

Orders were received by the citizens, from the king, to finish the city wall on the west of Ludgate, and which was accordingly set about. The mayor and citizens, moreover, undertook to pay £1700 for discharging the king's debts, in consideration of having the fines of the city arising from *aids* and *talliage* assigned to them.

The king's imprudent conduct in loading his favourite, Piers Gaveston, with money and emoluments, soon created a difference between the king and the nobility. The nobles threatened that they would compel his majesty by force of arms to submit to their demands; and such was Edward's pusillanimity that he had every reason to fear that these threats would be put into execution. Presuming on the loyalty of the city of London, the king commanded the mayor and citizens to take care of the city, and not suffer either foot or horse soldiers to enter without his order. The barons of the exchequer were, at the same time, directed to inquire by what right the sheriffs claimed certain farms, and other dues, required for the king's use. The barons, however, decided in favour of the citizens, whereby they virtually conferred to them the power of appointing the sheriffs of London and Middlesex, for the time to come. A royal message was likewise sent to John Gisors, and to the city authorities, leaving it to their option whether they would fine for their *talliage* or raise their quota of the annuity, which the king desired, by a poll-tax and a general assessment. A *folk-mote* being held, returned an answer that the city of London was exempt from taxes by their ancient rights, confirmed by *Mayna Charta*, on paying a certain annual sum for the fee-farm of the city, in lieu of

taxation ; and prayed the postponement of the *talliage* till the meeting of Parliament. This was agreed to, on condition that the citizens would lend the king 2000 marks ; but, both parties vacillating, the citizens at length agreed to lend £1000, on the king granting his letters patent that the *talliage* should be deferred, as was at first proposed. His majesty, as an additional favour, forbade the assessors of the county of Oxford from *cessing* the citizens of London for trading to Henley.

In the year 1314 the spire of St. Paul's, being in danger of falling, was taken down, and a new cross, with a pommel well gilt, set on the top. Gilbert de Segrave, the Bishop of London, having deposited divers *relicues* of saints in the said cross.—When are such *fooleries* to have an end ?

Provisions were at this period extremely dear. The Parliament therefore determined, on pain of forfeiture of goods, to settle the price of provisions. The following are the prices mentioned in the king's letter to the sheriffs :—The best grass fed ox, 16s. ; the best grain fed ox, 24s. ; the best cow, 12s. ; the best hog, two years old, 3s. 4d. ; the best shorn mutton, 1s. 4d. ; the best goose, 3d. ; the best capon, $2\frac{1}{2}$ d. ; the best hen, $1\frac{1}{2}$ d. ; the best chickens, per pair, $1\frac{1}{2}$ d. ; the best young pigeons three for 1d. ; twenty eggs, 1d. But Parliament soon found that they had made bad worse ; and that as well might the legislature attempt to bottle the wind of heaven, or give laws to the sea, as to regulate the price of the necessaries of life by statute law. A frightful famine ensued, which fell very heavily upon London and other large towns. Many a mother was induced, by the extremity of hunger, to partake of her own child ; and in the public gaols one prisoner sustained a wretched existence by the flesh of his fellow-prisoners. Pestilence followed famine : so much so that one of the chroniclers of the

time remarks, “ that the living were scarcely sufficient to bury the dead.”

The magistrates of London, favoured by a corrupt and weak government, assumed an arbitrary power in the city, appointing officers according to their own pleasure, levying taxes upon their fellow-citizens, and favouring themselves. Appeals were repeatedly made to the itinerant or assize judges, but without redress. At length the excise officers agreed to concur with the commonalty in certain constitutions which were drawn up, and which at length were confirmed by royal charter, dated 8th June, 1318, an epitome of which it is important here to give:—First, That the mayor and sheriffs of the city be elected by the citizens, according to royal charters, and no otherwise; that the mayor remain in office only one year; that the sheriffs have but two clerks and two serjeants, and for such they will answer; that the mayor have no other office, or hold other pleas than those which the mayor ought to hold; that the aldermen be removed from year to year, and others chosen; that *tallages*, or aids, be assessed by the men of the wards, elected and deputed for this, and not to be increased but by common consent of the mayor and commonalty; that the money so collected be delivered to the custody of four honest men, chosen by the commonalty, to whom also the said four are to give account of all monies; that strangers and English merchants, having some mystery or trade, be admitted to the freedom of the city, by surety of six honest and sufficient men who may undertake for them, such surety being of the same mystery or trade; that persons of no mystery be inadmissible, excepting by the assent of the commonalty; that those who, during the present reign, have taken freedom contrary to the forms prescribed, and they who have

broken their *oath*, to lose the freedom of the city ; that this does not apply to apprentices ; that citizens protecting the goods of others, by calling them their own, do lose their freedom ; that citizens living in the city, or out of the city, do pay *scot* and *lot*, and partake of all burdens for maintaining the state of the city, or lose their freedom ; that the common seal of the city be in the custody of two aldermen, and two commoners, chosen for that purpose ; that the seal be not denied either to poor or rich, and no charge be made for the use of such seal ; that judgments be not deferred, or if difficulty intervene, be not put off beyond the third court ; that weights and scales of merchandizes be weighed between merchant and merchant, remain in the custody of honest men expert in that office, chosen by the commonalty, and by no means committed to others not so chosen ; that the sheriffs in the execution of their office, have sufficient men, for whom they will answer, not committing their trust to others ; that merchants not free of the city sell, by retail, wines or other wares, within the city or suburbs ; that brokers be elected by merchants of the mysteries in which they may have to exercise their offices, and on oath before the mayor ; that common harbourers in the city, though not freemen, be partakers of the contingent burdens for maintaining the said city, like other dwellers in the same ; that the merchants of Gascony be harboured according to former custom ; that the keeping of the bridge, and collecting its tolls, be committed to two honest and sufficient men, not aldermen, and chosen by the commonalty, and answerable to the same ; that no serjeant of the chamber of Guildhall take fee of the commonalty of the city, or do execution, unless one chosen for this by the commonalty of the city ; that the chamberlain, common clerk, and common

serjeant, be chosen by the commonalty of the city, and be rewarded according to the will of the same city ; and, finally, that the mayor, and other city authorities, be content with their fees according to ancient appointment. This charter was of the utmost importance, and which, with only a few trifling variations, may be regarded, to the present hour, as the constitution of the city of London.

A Parliament was summoned by the king the same year that this charter was granted (1318), to meet him at York, and a writ was directed to the sheriffs, ordering them to send two of their fellow-citizens to represent the city in the Great Council. Three members, however, were sent, with full and sufficient power. Why this alteration was made does not appear. The opulence and importance of the city was made apparent by this Parliament, which enacted that London should furnish two hundred men as its quota of a force which was to be raised against the Scots, who had penetrated into England as far as York. The number of troops sent by London being five times greater than that of any other city.

Notwithstanding the charter just given to the citizens, many complaints were continually being made of the outrages and robberies committed in the city. The justices itinerant, and the lord treasurer, sitting in the Tower, summoned the city authorities before them, when the guilt of Sir John Gisors, the late mayor, and other principal citizens, was made so apparent that the delinquents thought it expedient to screen themselves from justice by flight, and the king's affairs at this time being in a critical state, and requiring the aid of the Londoners, conciliatory measures were preferred rather than the infliction of condign punishment.

The king had embroiled himself with his barons, in conse-

quence of the ascendancy which the two Spencers had obtained. Honours and emoluments of every kind had been heaped upon these two favourites, and which the nobility were determined to restrain by the perpetual banishment of the offending parties—father and son. A Parliament was accordingly summoned to meet in London. The number of armed men who assembled on this occasion in the vicinity of the metropolis required peculiar vigilance on the part of the citizens. No strangers were allowed to enter the city, the gates of which were guarded by a thousand men completely armed, from four o'clock in the morning until six in the evening, when they were relieved by the same number. The night watch in the streets was also kept in the strictest order. The gates of the city were closed at nine in the evening, and not opened until seven in the morning. At length, by the king's permission, the barons and their retainers were admitted into the city; and an act of Parliament passed for the banishment of the guilty favourites. The citizens being now in high favour with the unhappy king, another charter was given them; and, in return for which, the citizens generously gave Edward 2000 marks to support the war with Scotland.

But this calm was soon, by the vacillating and besotted king, turned into a storm. The king having experienced some temporary success against the barons, determined to break those charters which had so lately been given, or confirmed, to the citizens of London. Edward having discomfited the troops of the Earl of Lancaster, caused the earl himself to be led out to execution, degraded in every way which malice and weakness could devise. The favourites (the Spencers) were recalled, and his majesty's coffers being exhausted, the king pretending that the city was in a feeble state of discipline,

seized upon the liberties of the city and extorted from them, for the redemption of their municipal rights, the sum of 2000 marks. This happened in the year 1322.

Nothing could be more ill-judged than such a step at this particular crisis. For at this very time Queen Isabella was in France, having gone over to the continent, under the specious pretext of making some arrangement with Charles, King of France, for the possessions held by the English crown in Guienne, but covertly with an intention of ruining the interests of the favourite Spencers, and hurling also her husband and her sovereign from the throne of his ancestors. The queen consort had for some time lived upon bad terms with her husband. Indeed, from their marriage, it was very evident that they were but ill-suited for each other, and the king's weakness could but increase the contempt which she entertained respecting him. Paris, the residence of the court of St. Denis, was at this early period distinguished as a place of pleasure and gaiety. In this dissipated court Isabella found many of the discontented English nobility ready to forward any schemes for restoring that ascendancy in their own country which they had lately lost. Among others, the queen became acquainted with Roger Mortimer, a young and potent baron from Wales. The graces of his person and address soon gained her treacherous heart, and in a scene of ribaldry, where even adultery was known by no other name than *gallantry*, the wretched Isabella lived in the most declared intimacy with her youthful paramour. Her intentions also, as the head of a conspiracy was no longer a secret, and a correspondence was carried on with the malcontent party in England. All this at length reached the ears of the besotted Edward. He ordered her immediate return home, together

with the prince, the heir apparent to the throne. Instead of obeying this summons, she publicly replied that she never would set her foot in England again until the favourite Spencer was for ever removed from the king's presence. A sentiment which produced an indelible impression upon the minds of the English.

Notwithstanding these fearful omens of approaching ruin, the deluded monarch, in the year 1326, in open defiance of the chartered privileges of London, demanded that the citizens should supply him with one hundred soldiers, to be maintained at their own expence, and to march under the king's orders wherever ordered. At this moment the queen landed with an army in England. The citizens, by this circumstance, were the more confirmed in making resistance to the king's unconstitutional demands. Their answer was, "That they would at all times revere their sovereign lord the king, the queen, and the prince their son, the indubitable heir of the crown, shutting their gates against, and resisting all foreigners and traitors to the utmost of their power, but that they were not willing to march out to fight, unless according to their ancient privileges." Incensed at this reply, the silly monarch committed the care of the city to Walter Stapleton, Bishop of Exeter; his second son, John of Eltham, he placed in the Tower; and, leaving things in this very precarious state, departed to the western parts of England for the alleged purpose of raising troops.

It soon became apparent that the whole nation was prepared for some revolutionary change. The clergy, no less than the nobles and commonalty, were disgusted with Edward's conduct. Isabella had scarcely landed her army, consisting only of about three thousand men, procured from Holland,

than the whole country declared in her favour. She forthwith applied to the citizens of London for their immediate and powerful aid. Her letters, addressed to the city authorities, were drawn up in an energetic, yet pathetic style, expressive of her determination, with their assistance, to reduce and punish the oppressors of the nation. Her majesty's letter being stuck upon the cross in Cheapside, and other parts of the city, produced a most powerful effect. The citizens, finding that an application had been made to the mayor, by the Bishop of Exeter, for the keys of the city, seized the mayor, and threatened him with instant death should he attempt to obey any orders but theirs. This was a dilemma from which there was no escape ; and the work of destruction instantly began. The first object of their vengeance fell upon one Marshall, a domestic of the younger Spencer, whom they promptly, without form of trial, beheaded. The house of the Bishop of Exeter was next pillaged, and his person seized as he was about entering St. Paul's cathedral for sanctuary. He was inhumanly beaten, dragged into Cheapside, first proclaimed a traitor, and then beheaded. Two of his domestics experienced the same fate. The very next day the keys of the Tower were demanded of Sir John de Weston, the constable, to which he felt obliged to comply. All the state prisoners were discharged. The king's son, John of Eltham, was appointed *custos* of the city, and guardian of the kingdom. Robert Baldock, the king's chancellor and a priest, was the next victim of popular fury. He had been brought from Hereford, and was confined in the bishop's prison. Being forcibly dragged from hence to Newgate, he was so unmercifully beaten, on his way thither, that he soon died from the injuries which he had sustained.

By this time the furious Isabella was at the gates of London ; and though, as a wife, she had first deserted, next invaded, and then dethroned her husband ; though she had made her son, yet a minor, an instrument in this unnatural treatment of his father ; and though by lying pretences she stood convicted of having seduced the nation into a rebellion against their sovereign ; yet such was the unrestrained excesses of popular fury that the citizens received this *she-dragon* within their walls, together with her son Edward, and a large number of the nobility and clergy. The king, thus generally deserted, made a precipitous flight into Wales, where he was made prisoner, and committed to close confinement. Isabella, in the king's name, summoned a Parliament to meet at Westminster, to concert measures for the king's destruction, 'ere the popular ferment should subside. The captive king, under various specious pretences, was obliged to abdicate his throne in favour of his son ; and who, almost simultaneously with his father's abdication, was crowned at Westminster.

This happened in the year 1327; the young king, Edward III., being in the fifteenth year of his age. His wretched father did not long survive ; for on the 21st of September of the same year, he was barbarously murdered in Berkeley Castle by the private order, it is believed, of the guilty Mortimer, and in a manner too horrible to be repeated.

The reign of Edward III. began auspiciously in reference to London. One of the first acts of the king, with the consent of the Regency and the Parliament, was to grant a new charter to the city, in gratitude for the services which had been rendered him during the late disturbances. All the ancient liberties and immunities of London were confirmed ; with the addi-

tional privileges of their mayor being made, for the time to come, one of the judges of *oyer and terminer*, for criminals confined in Newgate; the right of *infang-theft*, or the right of trying a robber taken within the jurisdiction of the city; *outfang-theft*, or the right of claiming a citizen apprehended elsewhere for felony, for the purpose of having him tried within the city; a right to the goods and chattels of all felons convicted within the jurisdiction of the city; a remission of £100 unjustly extorted from the city as before-mentioned; the privilege of devising lands in *mortmain*; the sheriffs of London and Middlesex being amerced only as others; foreign merchants being obliged to dispose of their goods within forty days of their arrival; the citizens not being chargeable with the custody of those who take sanctuary; the citizens being exempted from the authority of the king's steward, or clerk of the household; the mayor being made perpetual *escheator* for the crown, with the right of holding a *pyepowder court* in all country fairs where the citizens resorted, for the administration of justice; citizens being exempt from all *tallage* excepting assessments in common with their fellow-subjects; the liberties of the city hereafter not being seized for any alleged offence of the magistrates; the king's surveyors not rating any goods belonging to the citizens; and, finally, that of no market being held within seven miles of the city.

Before the granting of these important privileges by royal charter, the city of London had been honoured by their mayor, Richard de Bettoyne, having performed the office of chief butler at the king's coronation, attended by three hundred and sixty attendants, dressed in uniform, each carrying a white silver cup in his hand. At the request also of the citizens, the village of Southwark was placed under the government of the city.

Southwark, it seems, had for some time past been the receptacle and refuge of felons, thieves, and other disturbers of the peace, having first committed various outrages within the walls of the city. For the suppression of these lawless outbreaks, the inhabitants of Southwark were placed under the jurisdiction of the lord mayor and corporation of London. Street outrages still continuing, the king, afterwards, farther ordered that no person in the city of London or Westminster, or in the suburbs thereof, should wear a coat of *plate*, or any weapon, on pain of forfeiting all his possessions.

A provincial council was likewise held in London, by Archbishop Mepham, in which it was decreed, that *Good Friday* should henceforth be strictly observed as a holiday, all service work being forbidden on that day. It must not, however, be imagined, from this incidence, that Edward was a slave to the church. Throughout his whole reign, his good sense and independent spirit dictated to him a reverse line of conduct. He was justly suspicious of the power of Rome; and gave many proofs, during his long reign, that his kingdom was not to be subjected to the domination of the Roman pontiff. In the earlier part of his reign, the old tribute was paid; but afterwards it was withheld. The pope, at first, threatened him with a citation to Rome in default of payment; but the king, far from being moved by such a threat, laid the matter before his Parliament. This national assembly proudly averred that their former sovereign, John, could not subject the kingdom to any foreign power without national consent; and therefore expressed their determination to support the reigning sovereign in resisting all unjust pretensions of the pontiff. A statute was subsequently passed, making it penal to procure any presentations to benefices from the court of

Rome. An outlawry was, by another statute, declared the penalty against any person carrying an appeal to the same court.

The Parliament became, from a variety of causes, extremely prejudiced against papal authority, and often urged the king to extremities against the church. Edward, however, being no reformer, contented himself with making the English clergy dependent upon himself and the statute law, for those revenues which they enjoyed. The fact is, that the light of a reformation had already dawned upon the Anglican church. The usurpations of the pope, it was believed, were the cause of the plagues, injuries, and poverty of the realm ; the taxes levied by churchmen exceeded about five times in amount those raised for the maintenance of the state ; everything was believed to be venal at Rome, and hence that English prelates practised without disguise the most shameless simony ; it was, moreover, regarded as a great prejudice to the nation for a churchman to be employed in any office of state. All parties have still to rue for not having carried this principle fully into effect.

In the year 1329, the period at which we have now arrived, King Edward amused his court and the citizens with a splendid *tournament*, which was performed in Cheapside. The romantic fêtes of chivalry were yet fashionable ; and though France had taken the lead in such matters, yet the mind of Edward and his court were deeply embued with the same spirit. Edward's personal courage and love of arms were unbounded, combined with a sincere and romantic attachment to the *fair sex*. He had been affianced at an early age to Philippa, daughter of the Count of Hainault, by the entreaties and intrigues of his mother, Isabella. But, contrary to what might

have been expected, he is said to have deeply fallen in love with his intended bride from the first moment of his seeing her, and which settled into an attachment for her which death alone could dissolve. The *tournament* was designed for an exhibition of Queen Philippa and the beauties of her court, to the French ambassadors. On this memorable occasion, twenty-six knights of approved skill and valour were selected. It, however, unfortunately happened that, in the midst of the *jousts*, the scaffolding erected for the accommodation of the ladies gave way, and the queen and the principal ladies present were precipitated to the ground. Although the ladies had experienced a terrible fright from this untoward accident, yet no serious mischief had been done. Edward, notwithstanding, becoming extremely indignant, would have wreaked his vengeance in a summary manner upon the builder, had not his beloved Philippa interposed, and by her urgent entreaties the delinquent obtained forgiveness.

Between this time and the year 1335, several royal proclamations were issued for the better management of the city and its commerce. A stringent proclamation directed that foreign wines should be sold *good* and *pure*, on pain of a heavy fine to the king. Farther regulations likewise took place for the purpose of securing the city from rioters and nightly marauders. An attempt was also again made for regulating the prices of provisions by law. The city had suffered severely by a scarcity of corn, and all sorts of provisions were excessively dear. An imperative mandate was sent from the king to the mayor and sheriffs, upbraiding them with neglect in these matters, and commanding them, under penalty of losing their whole fortunes, to convene together the aldermen and commonalty of the city, for the purpose of regulating the

prices of provisions; reforming abuses in respect to weights and measures; and punishing those who were guilty of *regrating*. In consequence of this, the city authorities regulated the prices as follow:—The best wheat, per quarter, 2s., the best ox, 6s. " 8d., the best sheep, 8d., the best pigeons, per dozen, 2d., the best goose, 2d., and the best pig, 1d.

The English monarch, all agree, was a prince of distinguished valour in war, and wise and firm in all matters of civil polity. His ruling passion, the foible of the times, was military enterprize. He had already engaged a large force against Scotland, which he had determined to unite as one kingdom, to England; and if that had not been enough he laid claim to the kingdom of France, and began to make preparations for the conquest of the same during the year 1337. It is foreign to our purpose to follow the king in his foreign wars, for the details of which we must refer our readers to the history of England. It will, notwithstanding, be impossible to continue a history of London without an occasional reference to Edward's foreign campaigns. At this period of the king's reign, the city appears to have been high in favour; for the liberties and customs of the citizens being again confirmed, with the consent of Parliament. Certain privileges having been granted to foreign merchants, the city made a formal complaint to the king, and a new charter, confirmatory of all their ancient privileges, was accordingly given. But royal favours seldom came as mere gratuities. The Parliament, in 1339, had granted the king a large subsidy for the French war, and in furtherance of the conquest of France, the citizens of London also advanced 20,000 marks.

The government of the city appears to have been vigorously managed during the king's absence. The riots occasioned by the fishmongers and skinners had been suppressed, the ring-leaders having been seized by order of Andrew Aubrey, the mayor; and pleading guilty were, in a summary manner, ordered for execution, and beheaded in Cheapside. The king, on his return, granting an indemnification to the city for all that had been done. The citizens, however, at the same time, made considerable opposition to the itinerant judges, who had repaired to the Tower for the administration of justice, compelling them to break up the sessions. The king was, at first, much irritated by this conduct, but a representation having been made that the outrage had been committed by the sudden ebullition of the lowest orders, his majesty became appeased. It was also decreed, during the same year, by the provincial council of London, “*That whoever should be prevailed upon by the friars and monks to make their wills, at the point of death, in prejudice to their families, and the churches where they dwelt, should not have the benefit of christian burial.*” But the interference of the civil power now excited the indignation of the primate, Stratford. He issued a general sentence of excommunication against *all* who, on any pretext, should exercise violence on the persons or goods of clergymen, or accuse any prelate of treason or other crimes. Writing to the king, the primate tells him, “*That there are two powers by which the world is governed, the holy pontifical apostolic dignity, and the royal subordinate authority; and, of these two powers, the clerical was evidently the supreme.*” Edward was but ill-pleased with this priestly arrogance, and when the Parliament was summoned to meet the prelate's name was omitted. Stratford,

however, was not to be thus controlled. Arrayed in his full pontificals, and holding his crosier in his hand, and accompanied by a numerous train of priests and prelates, presented himself at the door of the House of Parliament, where, having remained for two days, the king thought it prudent to permit him to take his seat, and be reconciled with him. The king, likewise, thought it necessary to dissemble with his Parliament, the demands of which went far to restrain the royal prerogative. These proceedings arose principally from the large expenditure occasioned by foreign wars.

Our readers must excuse us if we here travel a little out of the *record* to present them with a specimen or two of female chivalry and heroism, intimately connected with the story in hand. Among the allies of Edward, in his foreign wars, was Count Mountfort, an aspirant for the duchy of Brittany, on the death of John II. The count, however, being besieged in the city of Nantes, by Philip, King of France, and the city taken through the treachery of the inhabitants, Mountfort fell into the hands of the enemy, was conveyed to Paris, and confined as a prisoner in the Louvre. JANE of *Flanders*, the count's wife, roused by the captivity of her husband, generously undertook to support his fallen fortune. Taking her infant son in her arms, she publicly presented him to the inhabitants of Rennes, where she then resided, imploring their co-operation. She declared her readiness to run every risk in defending the righteous cause of her husband and sovereign, reminding them of the assistance to be derived from England, and promising them success if they, with her, would defend the rights of the sovereign, and of Brittany. Roused by her enthusiastic address, the Bretons declared their willingness to live and die for the protection of their ancient liberties. The

countess pursued the same course in respect to other towns, and with the same result. The whole province being put into a good state of defence, she shut herself up in the fortress of Hennebonne, defying all opposition. Her enemies, forthwith, sat down before the place, resolved to conduct the attack with indefatigable vigour. The defence was equally energetic; the countess herself directing the military operations. On one occasion, finding the besiegers had neglected a distant part of their camp, she sallied forth at the head of a troop of cavalry, setting fire to their tents and baggage. But, in her return, she found herself intercepted by a considerable body of the enemy. Nothing dismayed at this critical position, she ordered her troops to disband, and make the best of their way by flight to Brest. Meeting them at the appointed rendezvous, with an additional force of five hundred horse, she returned towards Hennebonne, broke through the enemy's camp, and triumphantly entered the city, amidst the shouts and acclamations of the garrison. Several breaches had by this time been made in the walls, and a capitulation was about to take place, when the heroic *Jane*, having mounted a high tower, and looking towards the sea, descried some sails in the distance. She instantly exclaimed, with voice of thunder, "*Behold the English succours! No capitulation!*" And presently an English fleet was seen entering the harbour, under the command of the brave Sir Walter Manny. While these extraordinary scenes were taking place on the continent, the events at home were not less interesting. The Scots taking advantage of Edward's absence, had penetrated England, making sad devastation. *PHILIPPA*, the beloved *Queen of England*, determined to meet these marauders in person. She raised an army of about twelve thousand men, and, hastening towards

the north, came up with the enemy at Nevill's Cross, near Durham. Here the queen determined to offer battle. Riding through the ranks of her army, she exhorted *every man to do his duty*, and take revenge upon their barbarous invaders. Never did the Scots receive a more terrible blow than the present. They were completely put to the rout; many of the nobility perished on the field of battle; others were taken prisoners; the King of Scotland himself becoming a captive. The victorious Philippa, having secured her royal prisoner in the Tower, crossed over to the English camp before Calais, and was received with those honours which were due to her rank and valour. At this moment Calais was reduced to the last extremity. Sir Walter Manny was in treaty for a capitulation. Edward's indignation being roused by the inflexible bravery of the inhabitants of Calais, thirsted for the blood of these heroes. At length, it was agreed that *six* of the burgesses of Calais should be sacrificed to appease the wrath of the vindictive English monarch. Eustace de St. Pierre, and five of his brave countrymen, having laid the keys of their devoted city at Edward's feet, were ordered to be led to execution. Philippa's heart was as tender as it was brave. Moved at witnessing this sad spectacle, and with eyes suffused with tears, she threw herself on her knees before the king and begged the lives of these brave Frenchmen. Edward hesitated; but nothing could be refused to his beloved Philippa. They were pardoned, and the king's memory rescued from the infamy which must have clung to it had this barbarous purpose been carried into effect. She gave orders that a repast should be prepared for them in her own tent, and of which having partaken, they were dismissed in safety by the generous princess, laden with presents. We conclude this lengthened paragraph

by a short extract from the chronicler Froissart, who, in the most graphic manner, has described some of the last scenes of Queen Philippa's life. "In the mean season," he observes, "there fell, in England, a heavy case and a common; howbeit, it was piteous for the king, his children, and all his realm, for the good Queen of England that so many good deeds had done in her time, and so many knights succoured, and damsels comforted, and had so largely imparted of her goods to the people, and naturally loved always the nation of Hainault, the country where she was born, she fell sick in the castle of Windsor, the which sickness continued on her so long that there was no remedy but death. And the good lady, when she knew and perceived there was with her no remedy but death, she desired to speak with the king her husband; and when he was before her, she put out of her bed her right hand and took the king by his right hand, who was right sorrowful at his heart. Then she said, 'Sir, we have in peace, joy, and great prosperity, used our time together: Sir, now I pray you, at our departing, that you will grant me three desires.' The king right sorrowfully weeping, said, 'Madam, desire what you will, I grant it.' 'Sir,' said she, 'I require you first of all, that all manner of people, such as I have dealt withal in their merchandize, on this side of the sea or beyond, that it may please you to pay everything I owe to them or to any other. And, secondly, sir, all such ordinance and promises made to the churches, as well of this country as beyond the sea, where I have had my devotion, that it may please you to accomplish and fulfil the same. Thirdly, sir, I require you that it may please you to take no other sepulture, whensoever it shall please God to call you out of this transitory life, but beside me in Westminster.' The king, all weeping,

said, ‘ Madam, I grant all your desires.’ Then the good lady and queen made on her the sign of the cross, and commended the king her husband to God, and her youngest son, Thomas, who was there beside her. And shortly after she yielded up the spirit, the which I believe surely the holy angels received with great joy up to heaven.” *Wives and mothers of England, know that there is no true greatness for women, but in subordination to their husbands!*

Nothing can better shew the *genius* of these times than two extraordinary occurrences which happened this year, 1349. By the treachery of Amery de Pavie, an Italian, whom Edward had appointed governor of Calais, this important city had nearly been lost to the country but for the prompt measures of the king. Sir Walter Manny having been sent to prevent the French taking possession of Calais, Edward determined to fight under this brave commander as a private soldier. A terrible and bloody engagement ensued. But in the midst of it, the king descried a French gentleman whom he personally knew, and who was exerting himself in the combat with singular vigour and bravery. Seized with the extraordinary desire of ‘ trying a single combat with him, Edward stepped forth from his troop, and challenged Eustace de Ribaumont, for such was the Frenchman’s name, to fight. This being instantly accepted, a fierce and dangerous encounter began. Twice was the English monarch beaten to the ground by his brave antagonist, and as often recovered his position. The contest being renewed, victory yet remained undecided. At length Ribonmont’s strength, not his courage, began to fail, and finding a farther encounter useless, he called out to his antagonist, “ *Sir knight, I yield myself your prisoner,*” and delivered his sword to the king. In the evening of the day,

the victorious monarch invited Ribaumont, and others of his prisoners, to sup with the Prince of Wales and the nobles. After supper, the king throwing off his *incognito*, bestowed the highest encomiums upon Ribaumont, confessing the extreme peril to which he had been exposed by the bravery of his antagonist, calling him, “ the most valorous knight with whom he had ever been acquainted.” Taking a string of pearl which was hanging around his own neck, the generous Edward threw them about that of his opponent, saying, “ Sir Eustace, I bestow this present upon you as a testimony of my esteem for your bravery, and I desire you to wear it a year for my sake. I know you to be *gay* and *amorous*, and *to take delight in the company of ladies and damsels*: let them all know from what hand you had the present: you are no longer a prisoner, I acquit you of your ransom; and you are at liberty, to-morrow, to dispose of yourself as you think proper.”

Such an anecdote better explains the peculiar character of the times than the most lengthened description. We can therefore readily believe the story which has been told of the origin of the Order of the Garter, which took place this same year. Edward having returned home flushed with success, gave a grand court-ball to the numerous distinguished foreigners then in England, to the noblemen and knights, and to their wives, mistresses, and daughters. In the midst of the ribaldry of this gay assembly, the king’s mistress, believed to be the beautiful and accomplished Countess of Salisbury, either by accident or otherwise, dropped her garter, and which her royal admirer immediately picked up. Some of the courtiers presuming that this select article of dress had been obtained rather by favour than accident, and which was most probably the fact, could not forbear a smile. The king

perceiving that this little incidence was noticed, promptly and wittily called out, “*Honi soit qui mal y pense,*” or “*Evil be to him that evil thinks.*” Every incident of gallantry amongst the warriors of these times being magnified into matters of great importance, the monarch unmindful “ how much a man is a fool when he dedicates his behaviour to love,” became anxious to perpetuate the memorial of such an event by instituting the Order of the Garter, choosing the very words above cited as the motto of the order. Such an origin appears so frivolous, that according to the notions of modern times it might seem impossible; but in this romantic age of chivalry and profligacy, and which prevailed in the most refined courts of Europe; looking also at the peculiar badge of the order, and the seemingly unmeaning words of the motto, it is most likely that the traditional reason for establishing the order must be correct.

But to return. Edward’s foreign wars continuing, and money being much wanted, the king thought of an expedient by which a present supply might be obtained. By a statute of Edward I. every citizen possessed of an annual income of £40 might become a knight. This law, the monarch attempted to enforce. But the citizens, not being anxious to obtain honours at so dear a rate, availed themselves of those exceptions which they found in the same statute; and the sheriffs were instructed to return the king such an evasive answer that ultimately the citizens were able to retain possession of their money, and the sovereign obliged to drop this method of raising supplies.

During the mayoralty of Richard Mercer, in 1345, it was agreed that henceforth the new mayor should be chosen by the mayor, aldermen, and certain of the common council from

each ward, to be summoned for this specific purpose. Those who refused to serve the office of mayor being eligible, to be fined 100 marks; and every alderman absent at the time appointed for the election, unless a reasonable cause for his absence could be given, to be allowed by the mayor and aldermen, be fined £20. These fines were imposed in consequence of the extreme difficulty of procuring persons willing to serve the city offices. This disinclination arose from an ordinance at court having been made, making it imperative, in defiance of the great charter, that all matters of dispute done in London, should be tried by persons of foreign countries, to the great annoyance and expence of the citizens.

London was visited by the *plague*, which began in the year 1348, spreading itself almost all over England, occasioning a frightful mortality, amounting, it is believed, to not less than a tenth of the entire population. The ordinary burial-grounds in London were so filled that cemeteries were opened without the city. The Bishop of London, Dr. Ralph Stratford, assisted by Sir Walter de Manny, and others, purchased three acres of land, which were consecrated as a burial place for the poor. The mortality continuing, Sir Walter purchased another plot of land of thirteen acres, called Spittle Cross, adjoining the ground first purchased by the bishop, and which was applied to the same use. In this ground, during the year 1349, no less than fifty thousand persons were buried. A chapel was afterwards built within the burial-ground, with a foundation for masses to be said for the souls of the dead. This cemetery was afterwards converted into a convent, and its site is now known as the Charter House and square. Another cemetery was, about the same time, made on the eastern side of Tower-hill, also without the walls. This good

and necessary work was done by John Corey, a popish priest. Why has not the wisdom of our ancestors, in this respect, been followed ? or why does the legislature still allow *the quick* and *the dead* to be mingled together ?

The trade of London suffered greatly by this solemn visitation of divine Providence ; yet, by the exertions of the corporation, the citizens soon surmounted all their difficulty. The king, pleased with the improving state of things granted the city the privilege of carrying a gold or silver mace, inscribed with the royal arms, before the mayor on all state occasions within the liberties of the city, or the county of Middlesex ; and, as Edward's charter significantly, but oddly, expresses it, “ also in the presence of us, our mother, our consort, or our children.” Maces were likewise permitted to be carried to any place to which the lord mayor might officially be called to do his duty. The appellation of *lord*, appears to have been assumed by the chief magistrate of London from this time. In gratitude to their sovereign for these favours, the corporation sent twenty-five men at arms, and five hundred archers into France, at their own expence, to assist the king in the war which he was then waging with that country.

The king continued to prosecute his foreign wars with vigour ; and the exploits of his son Edward, Prince of Wales, surnamed the Black Prince, from the colour of his armour, had resounded throughout Christendom. Battle after battle having been gained by the English, at length John, King of France, became a prisoner of war. In the year 1357 young Edward returned to England with the captive king, being met in Southwark by the delighted citizens of London. A procession was made through the city, which was so numerous that it required three hours before the whole retinue could pass.

The King of France was arrayed in his robes of state, mounted upon a fine noble *charger*, while the conquering prince followed him, riding on a black pony, without any splendour of attire whatever. John, although in such humiliating circumstances, was received by the generous Edward with all the courtesy due to his high rank, and with the respect due to a visitor rather than to a captive. It may be thought that, from the success which had attended the English in foreign warfare, that the art of war had been well cultivated by the inhabitants of London. The fact, however, seems to be the reverse; for the king, fearing that skill in shooting with arrows had become too much neglected, and that a deficiency of archers would be the result, wrote to the sheriffs on the subject. The letter states that various useless, dishonest, and unlawful games, as hurling of iron bars, stones, and wood, of hand-ball, foot-ball, and bandy-ball, and *cambuck*, or cock fighting, having engrossed the popular pastime, the sheriffs should see that the leisure time upon holydays was spent in recreations *with bows*. Imprisonment, during the king's pleasure, was ordered to be inflicted upon those who refused to comply with the king's orders.

The city of London, during this reign, had been several times visited by the *plague*. The population of the metropolis had greatly increased, the streets were very narrow, the supply of water but scanty, and the accumulation of filth had become very great. It was also believed that the effluvia arising from slaughter houses had further contributed to promote or increase infection. The king, with the consent of the Parliament, directed "that all bulls, oxen, hogs, and other gross creatures, should be killed, for the sustentation of the city, as far from London as the town of Stratford, on one part of London, and

the town of Knightsbridge on the other. The penalty inflicted was forfeiture of the *creature* killed, and one year's imprisonment of the butcher." But notwithstanding these prudential measures, the plague raged so furiously in the city that, during two days only, twelve hundred are recorded to have died.

This dreadful visitation was only just on the *wane*, when the splendid exhibitions of chivalry were renewed. Smithfield became the *arena* for a grand tournament, to which the valiant knights of France, and other foreign states, were invited to meet those of England. And, that the utmost prowess might be elicited, Edward, beside being present himself, brought his queen with him, and a numerous train of court *beauties*. The year following, the riches of London became apparent by a most splendid entertainment, given by Henry Picard, the late lord mayor. The kings of England, Scotland, France, and Cyprus, the Prince of Wales, and the most distinguished among the nobility, being amongst the guests on this memorable occasion. The ladies, likewise, appear to have been invited, since Lady Margaret, the mayor's wife, "kept her chamber for the same intent."

The first time we read of a *fine* for not serving the office of lord mayor, is in the year 1368, when Walter Berneye being elected, and not appearing, a warrant of distress was issued against his goods for 100 marks.

It has already been mentioned that Sir Walter Manny, a distinguished general in Edward's foreign wars, purchased a parcel of ground for the interment of the poor during a visitation of the plague. On this site he determined to take upon himself the sole care of erecting and endowing a double monastery of Carthusian friars, to be called, "*the house of the salutation of the mother of God*," which had been previously

begun by Michael de Northburgh, the late Bishop of London. This prelate had bequeathed £2000 for building the convent, with certain other immunities mentioned in his *will*. He moreover gave to the convent, when finished, his two best silver basins for the service of the altar, a silver *pix* enamelled for the *host*, a silver vessel for holy water, a silver bell, his two best vestments to officiate in, and all his divinity books. Sir Walter de Manny completed this munificent undertaking; and, at his death, his body was deposited, with great pomp, in an alabaster tomb in the middle of the choir of the chapel which formed part of the newly erected monastery. His funeral was honored by the presence of the king, the royal family, and a great number of the nobility.

Brilliant as the former part of Edward's reign had been, the latter part proved most unpropitious. This preyed upon the king's mind, rendering him irritable and peevish. The treasury of the nation had become exhausted by his foreign wars; although of all the acquisitions of territory nothing now remained but the town of Calais. The health of Edward, the Black Prince, had long been in a declining state; and to the great regret of the people of England, he died at the early age of forty-six. The remonstrances of the parliament had become both more frequent and more explicit. The citizens of London, likewise, were very desirous of having their sovereign's charters confirmed by parliament. This proved offensive to the king; who, in his turn, sometimes answered them sternly. To one of the city petitions the king gave for answer, "That he would be further informed;" to another, "The king will not depart from his ancient rights;" and, to a third, "The king cannot do it, without doing wrong to others."

Notwithstanding this difference in Edward's conduct, the citizens continued their anxiety to secure his favour. A public *mask* was given for the entertainment of Prince Richard, now heir apparent, and his mother, the widow of the Black Prince. A *masquerade on horseback* proceeded over London-Bridge, and through Southwark, to Kennington, where the prince then resided, with trumpets and bands of music. The first division of this *pageat* consisted of forty-eight persons, dressed in habits of esquires, but in *vizards*; the next of the same number dressed like knights; the third division was headed by an individual who rode in a pompous imperial habit, followed at some distance by another who personified *the pope*, attended by twenty-four representative cardinals, and followed by ten persons in horrible black masks, like legates of his *infernal highness*. On their arrival at the palace they dismounted, saluting Prince Richard and the Princess of Wales, his mother. Which done, one of the maskers produced a pair of dice, but so contrived that the prince who threw them was sure to win, and having thrown three times, he won a bowl, a cup, and a ring, all of gold. This being ended, the citizens were entertained with a sumptuous supper, and spent the evening in dancing and merriment. The royal *hosts* taking part in the same.

The last year of the king's life is rendered memorable by the appearance of William de Wickliffe in London, under the protection of John, Duke of Lancaster, the king's son, Lord Piercy, and a large number of friends. He had been summoned by Courtney, Bishop of London, to appear in Saint Paul's church to answer various charges of heresy, particularly in reference to the Roman pontiff's supremacy, and the sacrifice of the mass. It is quite evident that Wickliffe's ruin had

already been decided upon ; but on which the *churchmen* had decided too hastily.

By whatever motives *this morning star* of the Reformation might at first have been actuated, it may be difficult to determine ; certain it is, that the corruptions of the church had become so notorious that the clergy and the laity were alike anxious for some reform. Wickliffe is said to have been eminently great, both as a divine and a scholar. Nineteen articles were selected from his public lectures which were thought to be heretical, and which were privately, (because contrary to law,) transmitted to Pope Gregory XI. The pontiff issued his bulls to the Archbishop of Canterbury, and the Bishop of London, to try this *heresiarch*. Courtney, Bishop of London, expressed his high displeasure at the protection afforded to Wickliffe, assuring Piercy, the Earl Marshal, in an arrogant tone, “that if he had been apprised of his *masterly* behaviour, he would have taken care to have prevented his coming thither.” To this John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, replied with great warmth, “that Lord Piercy should act in this affair as he pleased, whether the bishop liked it or not.” On entering the *lady’s chapel* of St. Paul’s church, the duke, the nobles, and prelates, took their seats, Wickliffe standing before them. The earl marshal courteously desired the *accused priest* to sit down ; alleging that since he had much to answer, he ought to sit down. To this the Bishop of London objected ; hereupon the Duke of Lancaster, greatly excited, averred that he would not only pull down his pride, but that of all the bishops in the kingdom also, adding, that his family connexions should profit him nothing ; the bishop having rejoined that his trust was in God only, the duke became so exasperated that he told the bishop

plainly, “ that he would rather draw him out of the church by the hair of his head than endure *this* at his hands.” Under such circumstances the *learned confessor* had no great reason for fear. The meeting was not of protracted length ; and ended by a prohibition to Wickliffe neither to preach or defend the articles which had been laid to his charge. The citizens at this time were generally opposed to Wickliffe ; but at a subsequent period, when the *priest* of Lutterworth was summoned to appear at Lambeth, the Londoners took a decided part in his favour. The early seeds of the reformation had already taken deep root throughout the kingdom, although a full development of them was deferred until two centuries later. Wickliffe continued to reside peaceably at Lutterworth until the year 1387, when he died. The memory and opinions of John de Wickliffe were condemned by the council of Constance in 1415, and a few years after, in the true spirit of *the church*, his bones were dug up, publicly burned, and the ashes thrown into the river.

The Duke of Lancaster, highly indignant at the conduct of the citizens, or rather, of the *city mob*, repaired to the parliament house, of which he was president, and proposed, in the king’s name, amongst other things manifestly contrary to the rights and privileges of the city, that a *custos* should be appointed for the government of London.

The citizens justly alarmed, assembled the next day in their corporate capacity, to consider what steps should be taken in their present dilemma ; but before anything could be resolved upon, the citizens ran to arms, hastened to the marshalsea, where the earl was supposed to be ; but not finding him, they released a prisoner confined there, and spoiled and plundered the house. From hence they proceeded to the

Savoy, a palace of the Duke of Lancaster. The duke had made his escape. They demanded the release of Sir Peter de la Mere; but a priest having imprudently replied that Sir Peter was a traitor, they inflicted summary vengeance upon him by barbarously murdering him. The palace also would have been pulled down but for the prudent interference of the Bishop of London, who promised to procure an accommodation for the good of the city.

The tumult being quelled, the citizens peaceably returned home. The *Duke*, however, was stigmatized with the name of traitor: his armorial bearings were hung up in the principal streets of the city, reversed. The Bishop of Bangor, at the duke's command, pronounced the late rioters, *excommunicate*. The corporation of London publicly expressed their disapprobation of this outbreak, and addressed the king himself on the occasion. They disavow being parties to the late commotion; allege that it was made without their privity; that the magistrates and principal citizens had used their best endeavours for its suppression; concluding with expressions of deep regret, that their liberties should, on this account, be taken from them. The king's reply was conciliatory,—“ That he had no thoughts of any such thing,” and “ would have them to be easy in that matter.” The duke's party, notwithstanding, prevailed with the parliament, and the mayor, sheriffs, and aldermen, being ordered to attend the king then on his death-bed, at Sheen, near Richmond, were all dismissed and others appointed in their stead. The king likewise sent privately to the city, and commanded the corporation to make a large *wax candle*, with the duke's arms upon it, and carry it in solemn procession to St. Paul's church, there continually to burn before the *virgin Mary*. All this was punctually performed, at the expence of

the city. Even with these *propitiary rites* the duke was not satisfied ; and, but for the death of the king, which took place soon after, (1377) he would probably have wreaked his vengeance upon the offending citizens.

Amongst the ancient English monarchs, there is no reign of greater interest than that of Edward III. The transition state, which the conquest introduced, had passed away ; and even the struggles with regard to the great Charter had ceased. Royal prerogative, although undefined, was acknowledged by the sovereign himself not to be unlimited. The king, it has well been remarked, still conducted himself by one set of principles ; the barons by another ; the commons by a third ; and the clergy by a fourth But though these principles were to a certain extent, opposite and antagonistic ; yet, on certain great occasions, they were found to combine respectively, as circumstances seemed to require. Sometimes to check royal supremacy ;—at other times, to restrain the authority, either of the church, or the nobility. The authority of the people seldom had an opportunity of displaying itself, excepting upon some accidental outbreak, until a definite recognition of the liberty of the subject had been placed upon legislative enactments.

Scarcely was the death of Edward III. known, than the citizens of London proclaimed his grand-son, Richard, the son of the *Black Prince*, his successor. This was promptly notified, with renewed assurances of fidelity to the young sovereign, then only eleven years of age, and to his royal mother. They also prudently solicited the king's mediation, in order to put an end to the difference which had, for some time past, subsisted between the Duke of Lancaster his uncle, and themselves. This compromise was effected in July of the same year.

The young king was crowned at Westminster, the lord

mayor assisting at the coronation as chief butler to his majesty, conformably to former practices. The citizens, at the first meeting of parliament, renewed their petition, “that the city of London, might entirely,” (that is, to the exclusion of all foreigners,) “and peaceably enjoy all their franchises and usages, that the noble kings, his progenitors, had granted before that time.” To this, Richard, with the consent of the parliament, gave a most gracious response by a charter of confirmation.

His majesty was pleased also to signify his intention, from the respect which he bore to the city, of residing therein. Accordingly, the king, soon after, made a grand entry into the metropolis. His majesty was mounted on a stately charger, attended by the Duke of Lancaster, Lord Piercy, and a numerous retinue of nobles. Sir Simon Butler carried the sword of state, and Sir Nicholas Bond led the king’s horse. This procession came from Richmond, where the king resided, and was met at the entrance of the city by the mayor, aldermen, and citizens, dressed with the utmost splendour and magnificence. A *conduit* of curious construction, resembling a castle, was erected in Cheapside, from which wine of different colours was made to flow. Four beautiful damsels were in waiting, who served the king with wine in golden cups, bestrewing his head with gilt flowers, and throwing amongst the people *florins* that resembled gold. This joyous and well-conducted *pageat* ended to the satisfaction of all parties.

No better proof can be given of the influence which the citizens of London now possessed than an occurrence which happened in the second year of Richard’s reign. The seas surrounding England had become much infested by pirates, who committed great damage upon the English ships. John

Mercer, a daring buccaneer, had fitted out privateers in Scotland for the express purpose of taking British merchant ships. On one occasion he had the hardihood to enter the port of Scarborough, cutting out the ships in the harbour, and making them his prize. These depredations had become so repeated and disastrous, that Sir John Philpot, an eminent merchant of London, determined to go in quest of this marauder, and inflict summary justice upon him. Accordingly Sir John, at his own expence, fitted out a fleet, with a thousand men well armed, taking the command of the ships in person. He very soon met with the ferocious Mercer, little expecting such an attack, and having no means of escape, he was obliged to engage, though under disadvantageous circumstances. A long and desperate fight took place, in which Mercer was completely beaten. Most of his ships, likewise, were either taken or destroyed, and the victorious citizen returned in triumph to the port of London, amid the loud acclamations of his fellow citizens. This wise, brave, and rich citizen, afterwards rendered essential service to his country by fitting out a powerful fleet to go against the Duke of Bretagne. It is said that Sir John Philpot for many years, in parliament, and out of it, was the *head, heart, and hand* of the city of London, of which he likewise had been the chief magistrate.

The oppression of a weak ministry appeared but too plainly by an obnoxious *capitation* tax, now levied, for the first time, upon the people, and which produced the most disastrous results. Every trader for himself, for his wife, and children above fifteen, was taxed at 4d. per head; the aldermen at £2 each; and the mayor, as a *right honourable*, at £4.

This tax, always obnoxious, soon became intolerable from

the severity with which it was enforced, and which, at length, broke out into a dangerous insurrection. Wat Hilliard, a tyler, at Dartford, provoked at the brutal conduct of one of the collectors, knocked out the aggressor's brains, and the act being approved by those who witnessed it, a number of partisans were quickly collected. They first marched to Maidstone, but afterwards to Blackheath, where, having increased to a very large number, they protested against exactions, particularly from lawyers, whom they foolishly supposed had been the cause of the late exactions. They had the impudence likewise to summon the king to meet them. This the king was advised to refuse. The rebels, therefore, repaired to the neighbourhood of London, and arrived in Southwark on the 10th of June, 1380, where they did much mischief by the demolition of prisons and other houses. They visited Lambeth, burning the archbishop's palace, and destroying the books and manuscripts. On being admitted into the city, they proceeded to the Duke of Lancaster's palace, in the Savoy, which was soon reduced to ashes, and the furniture, plate, &c. completely destroyed. The rebel army, for such it may in truth be called, divided into different parts of the town, everywhere committing the grossest crimes, often accompanied with murder. Attempts were made to negotiate with them ; and, at length, Sir John Newton was sent to invite Wat, the tyler, to a conference with the king, in Smithfield. After some demur, this demagogue agreed to follow Sir John to the place appointed. When he came in sight of the king, setting spurs to his horse, and leaving his companions, he rode on a full gallop up to the king. "Sir, king," said he, "seest thou all yonder people ?" "Yea, truly," replied the king, "wherefore sayest thou so ?" "Because," said Wat, "they be all

at my command, and will do all that I would have them.” “ In good time,” rejoined the king, “ I believe it well.” After some further conference, *the traitor*, very insolently, demanded Sir John Newton’s sword. “ No,” answered the knight, “ it is the king’s sword, of which thou art not worthy; neither durst thou ask it of me, if we had been alone.” Wat, becoming very furious, the king interfered, and with some hesitation, and no small hazard, commanded William of Walworth, the mayor, to arrest him. Walworth boldly riding up to him, gave him such a blow on the head with his sword, that he fell to the ground, and was soon dispatched by others, who ran to assist. The rebels, perceiving that their chieftain had fallen cried out, “ Let us revenge his death,” and immediately bent their bows. Richard, with a presence of mind not often to be found in a boy of sixteen, making up to them, said, “ What, my friends, will you kill your king?” “ Be not troubled for the loss of your leader: I will be your captain, and grant you what you desire.” Hereupon the rebels marched, under his conduct, into St. George’s Fields, Southwark. In the meanwhile great efforts had been employed in London for raising a well-armed force; which was so promptly done that the brave and experienced Sir Robert Knowles found himself at the head of a thousand men completely armed. The appearance of so large a force struck such a panic into the *mal-contents* that they threw down their arms, and implored the king’s mercy. Jack Straw, the second in command, was apprehended in London a few days after; and, having been tried, was beheaded by order of the lord-mayor. The heads of the rebel chiefs, Wat Tyler and Jack Straw, were placed upon poles, and fixed upon London bridge. His majesty, sensible of the important service ren-

dered him by the bravery of the city of London, was pleased, forthwith, to confer the honour of knighthood upon William Walworth, mayor ; John Philpot, Nicholas Brembre, and Robert Saund, aldermen ; with a yearly pension of £100 to Sir William Walworth, and £40 per annum each to the other three. The city, likewise, was honoured with the addition of a dagger to the arms of London, as a grateful memorial of the assistance which this loyal city had given to the sovereign. It remains, however, doubtful whether the *dagger* in the city arms was designed to represent that of Sir William Walworth's ; rather, as some believe, that the dagger or sword was emblematical of Saint Paul,—the guardian saint of London.

John Northampton, a citizen of great energy and influence, having succeeded Walworth in the mayoralty, determined upon checking that unbounded licentiousness which now reigned in the city. The clergy had assumed to themselves the right of decision in cases of fornication and adultery ; but, being themselves unmarried, and *venality*, as to crime, existing to a frightful extent, the mayor determined, in spite of all clerical opposition, to proceed in this important work of reformation. The mistresses of the priests were punished in a very summary manner ; although their paramours were beyond the restraints of the civil authorities. Many found *walking the streets* were imprisoned ; others, having their *hair* first cut short, were carried through the streets on *tumbrels*, or dung-carts, with trumpets and hautboys preceding, for the purpose of publishing their crime. This active magistrate at length evinced such a turbulent spirit, that having many enemies, he was apprehended, and sentenced to perpetual imprisonment.

In the sixth year of Richard's reign (1382), a letter was

addressed by the king to the lord-mayor, confirming the privileges belonging to the constable of the tower. This grant clashed, in some measure, with the charters granted to the city of London by Edward III. The corporation, therefore, petitioned his majesty for a confirmation of all their rights, free-customs, &c.; which was granted. This, although afterward approved by the parliament, must be understood with some limitation, since the grant to the constable of the tower, also received parliamentary sanction. It is evident that at this period some design existed at court, to unsettle the ancient government of London, and upon which the mayor and commonalty kept a very jealous eye.

A representation being made, at this time, to the mayor, at a common-hall of the citizens, that certain abuses existed in the government of the city, consequent upon a want of good and sufficient persons in the common-council, it was determined, that the common-council, henceforth, should be chosen, not from the *guilds*, or companies, as heretofore, but from each ward, and under the care of the aldermen. Four out of each ward were at first chosen, but afterwards, it was settled that four, six, or eight, should be elected, according to the size of the ward. It was further ordered, that the common-council should meet once a quarter at least, or oftener, to consult and take care of the affairs of the city. In the city elections the king seems imprudently to have interfered. For Nicholas Brembre, a late mayor, prevailed with the newly elected common-council men, to turn out most of the aldermen, and choose others in their room. These irregular proceedings were not only confirmed at court, but an order was moreover given that the sheriffs elect should be sworn before the barons of the exchequer. John Gysors, the mayor, remonstrated

against this, as contrary to ancient custom ; but the barons decided that the sheriffs would execute office at their peril, otherwise than by taking oath before them.

From the courage and address of the young sovereign, already exemplified, hopes were entertained that Richard's reign would be one of great prosperity. These hopes were too soon discovered to be a mere illusion. His indiscretion, and want of capacity became every day more apparent. The corporation of London, in 1386, by command of his majesty, had repaired the walls, bulwarks, and *fosses* of their city, apprehensions being entertained of an invasion of England by France. But a peace having been concluded, the attention of the citizens was diverted to domestic troubles, occasioned principally by the king's indiscretion. His majesty had, unhappily, been guided by two favourites, Robert de Vere and Michael de la Pole; the former having been created Duke of Ireland, and the latter Earl of Suffolk, and chancellor. Amongst other plans, these favourites determined to murder Thomas, Duke of Gloucester, the king's uncle, a man indeed of turbulent disposition, but most influential in the government of the kingdom. It was proposed that Nicholas Exton, the mayor, should invite the duke to sup with him at Nicholas Brambre's, the late mayor, who was in the secret, and there assassinate him. Exton abhorring such an act, took care to caution Gloucester to be on his guard. The citizens, moreover, had solicited the Duke of Gloucester to take the government of the country upon himself, and offered their assistance. The duke declined their proposal ; but encouraged the citizens, in conjunction with other cities, to lay their grievances before the king, promising his support.

The city of London hereupon deputed sixty of their principal

citizens to wait upon the king, at Windsor, and present their grievances to him in person. Deputies from other towns and cities having united with them in this important enterprize. Richard, at first, refused to see them ; but, at length, by the entreaties of his uncles, and other noblemen, he granted them an audience. Sir Simon Sudbury submitted their grievances to the king, and humbly entreated that a parliament might be summoned to inquire into the mal-administration of public affairs ; and that men of worth and probity might be appointed thereto, according to the advice of parliament. His majesty replied, that their supplications being long, he had not time to answer ; but that he would communicate them to the parliament, which was to meet at Michaelmas. The king unhappily added, “ That his subjects should not be his masters, by prescribing to him.” Upon which, one of the deputies boldly said, “ That with humble submission to his majesty, justice was never less practised in England than at present.” Other observations followed, very startling to the king ; and who, by the advice of the nobles present, consented to summon parliament on the third of May next, to inquire into the grievances complained of.

But this compromise was unavailing. The king’s favourite advisers, fearing the result of a parliamentary inquiry, determined upon violent measures, and an army of one thousand five hundred men being collected, was marched towards London, under the command of the Duke of Ireland. Gloucester was prepared to meet him ; an engagement took place near Oxford, when the Duke of Ireland’s army was completely routed.

The city of London still desired pacific measures towards the king. Richard having shut himself up in the tower, with

his consort and the Archbishop of York, the citizens gave proof of their loyalty to his person by meeting him in a large body on horseback, and conducting him in a peaceable and dutiful manner, yet with considerable pomp and splendour, first to St. Paul's, and thence to his palace of Westminster. But, on the approach of the victorious army of the Duke of Gloucester, the king, either fearing for his personal safety, or mistrusting the loyalty of the Londoners, once more retired for protection within the walls of the tower. Richard now formed the desperate resolution of protecting his favourites at all hazards, and of overwhelming the confederated nobles. He issued a proclamation that whoever should dare to supply the approaching enemy with arms, ammunition, or provisions, should forfeit their estates, and suffer the extreme penalty of the law. In opposition to this imprudent royal mandate, a *manifesto* was sent to the mayor, aldermen, and citizens of London, signed by the Duke of Gloucester and the Earls of Arundel and Warwick, setting forth their allegiance to the king; alleging that certain lords, having been appointed to conduct the government of the country, had been interrupted therein by Alexander, Archbishop of York, Robert Vere, Duke of Ireland, Michael de la Pole, Earl of Suffolk, Robert Trevelian, a false judge, and Nicholas Brembre, a false knight of London, every one of whom were traitors to the king and kingdom; that they were now assembled for punishing these traitors, and for the redress of certain grievances; and required the mayor and citizens to aid and assist them in carrying these important matters into effect, and demanded their final resolution on the Friday following, being the 15th of November, 1386.

The Duke of Gloucester having already approached the

city walls, this manifesto carried such conviction with it, that the keys of the city were delivered to the duke, and his army supplied with provisions. A parliament was immediately summoned. The five individuals named in the *manifesto* were arraigned of high treason, none of the parties, excepting Sir Nicholas Brembre, being in custody. Sir Nicholas, after a hasty trial, was found guilty, and sentenced to be hanged. This sentence was executed upon him at Tyburn, in company with Sir Robert Tresilian, who had been subsequently taken, and convicted.

A temporary calm succeeded these commotions. His majesty so far expressing his approbation at the present tranquillity, that he proclaimed by his heralds, in conformity with the rude manners of the times, in the principal courts of Europe, that a *tournament* would be held at London, to commence on Sunday, next after Michaelmas, in the year 1390. Many princes and nobles from various foreign courts attended. The *jousts* continued for four days successively, honoured with the presence of the king, the queen, and a vast number of the nobility, with their ladies. Richard condescended to enter the *lists* himself on the second day. Open house was kept in the Bishop of London's palace for all persons of distinction, and at the king's expence. Each evening concluded with an elegant dress-ball. The arena of these scenes was Smithfield.

The better cleansing of the streets of London became at this period the subject of legislative enactment. The parliament decreed that no dung, garbage, offal, or other ordure, should be laid in any street or ditch, under a penalty of £20; that the filth upon the bank of the Thames should be removed; that the butchers of London should erect a house, or houses,

in a proper place, to receive all their ordure, thence to be carried off in boats to the middle of the river, and thrown therein, at the turn of the tide, at high water. It was further enacted that the aldermen of the city should remain in office during their good behaviour, and not be annually elected as heretofore; that the ward of Farringdon should be divided, and have two aldermen; and likewise settled what each ward should be assessed towards raising a fifteenth in the city, to be paid into the exchequer.

About the same time the king applied to the city for the loan of ten thousand pounds, which was ungraciously refused him. The king, being highly displeased, consulted with some of the nobles on this behaviour of the citizens, when the *council* resolved, “That it was not only expedient, but very requisite, that the insolent pride of *those presumptuous Londoners* should be speedily repressed.” The king was not long in finding a pretext for punishing them. The city magistrates were charged with *mal-administration in the government of the city*. His majesty, with the advice of his council, ordered the mayor, aldermen, sheriffs, and twenty-four of the most opulent citizens to be arrested, and conducted to Nottingham, there to answer the high crimes and misdemeanors to be laid against them. It was agreed among the citizens, faithfully to stand by each other, in order to justify their innocence; but such is human frailty, that some determined to save themselves by impeaching their brethren. The result of this was, that they threw themselves upon the mercy of their sovereign. John Hind, the mayor, was deposed and committed to close custody in Windsor castle; the rest were sent to different prisons, there to remain during the king’s pleasure. The late mayor, sheriffs, and aldermen, were adjudged to pay, for the first

fault, 1000 marks ; for the second, 2000 marks ; both for the king's use ; and, for the third, contrary to the charter of Edward III., the liberties of the city were seized. The sheriffs were likewise degraded, and seventeen aldermen removed. The king, moreover, withdrew from London, removing the courts of law to York. Whatever faults the citizens may have committed during the late troubles, these caustic measures of the king deeply impressed their minds, and induced them, when opportunity offered, to make those reprisals which ended in the dethronement of their weak and misguided sovereign. A fine of 3000 marks was paid to alleviate the king's displeasure, when the city liberties were also partially restored ; but to recover the right of choosing their own mayor, the citizens were obliged to comply with the king's terms, and pay him £10,000. His majesty soon after returned into London, attended by four hundred citizens, and was honoured with splendid and expensive *pageants* on his way to the royal palace in Westminster. Another grand procession took place in 1396, when the mayor and corporation went to Blackheath to meet the king and his intended consort, Isabella, a French princess, and now only eight years of age. The crowd, on this memorable occasion, was so great that nine persons were crushed to death upon London bridge.

At the visitation of London in 1397, Thomas Arundel, Archbishop of Canterbury, revived the old constitutions, for the inhabitants of the city to pay to their rector one penny in the pound, out of the rent of their houses, in lieu of tithes.

Into the political history of the latter part of Richard's reign our limits forbid us to enter. In 1399, the unhappy king was compelled, by a decree of parliament, to resign his crown into the hands of Henry, his cousin, Duke of Lancaster.

who, having returned from the continent, where he had been banished, during the king's absence in Ireland, and a general rising of the people taking place, the fallen monarch was generally deserted, occasioned rather by his weakness and incapacity than any crimes of which he had been guilty. Richard's reign having lasted for twenty-three years.

The entry of Henry Bolingbroke, Duke of Lancaster, into London, is graphically drawn by the master-pen of the *bard of Avon*.

——— “the duke, great Bolingbroke,—
Mounted upon a hot and fiery steed,
Which his aspiring rider seem'd to know,—
With slow, but stately pace, kept on his course,
While all tongues cry'd—‘ God save thee, Bolingbroke !
You would have thought, the very windows spake,
So many greedy looks of young and old
Through casements darted their desiring eyes
Upon his visage ; and ,that all the walls,
With painted imag'ry, had said at once,—
‘ Jesu, preserve thee ! ’ ‘ welcome, Bolingbroke ! ’
Whilst he, from one side to the other turning,
Bare-headed, lower than his proud steed's neck,
Bespeak them thus,—‘ I thank you, countrymen :’
And thus still doing, thus he past along.”

END OF PART I.

HISTORY OF LONDON.

PART II.

FROM HENRY IV. TO JAMES I.

HAVING in the former part, brought down the history of London to the accession of Henry IV., giving a detailed account of everything essential to a correct knowledge of the rise and progress of this queen of cities, it will henceforth be indispensable to give a more general summary of passing events in connexion with her history.

The life of a deposed monarch is seldom of long continuance. That of Richard II. is no exception; for no sooner had he resigned the crown to the aspiring Duke of Lancaster, than, either by direct orders from his successor, or from his known wishes, the unfortunate Richard was privately murdered, and his dead body exposed to public inspection. Henry IV., who now assumed the reins of government, is, in many respects, no less an object of pity than censure. He had been harshly and unjustly treated by his predecessor, and was hurried into the commission of one enormity after another, from no cruelty of disposition, or preconcerted schemes, but from being placed in peculiar circumstances, and for making good his illegal pretensions. His title to the crown being based on a very dubious foundation, his short reign of thirteen

years proved but a succession of conspiracies against his life and crown. These reiterated commotions broke his spirit, induced disease, and ultimately brought him to a premature death, at the age of forty-six. The conspiracies, however, which were formed against him, proceeded rather from the nobles, assisted by the neighbouring princes of Wales, Scotland, and France, than from the people.

Henry IV. was crowned at Westminster, on the 13th of October, 1399 ; the lord mayor acting as chief butler of England ; the aldermen of London likewise being admitted to take their place next the sideboard. On this great occasion, the king made himself exceedingly popular to the citizens, by ordering all the blank *charts*, which had been extorted from the more wealthy citizens, during the late reign, to be publicly burnt in Cheapside.

The acts of Henry, in his first parliament, were, moreover, highly acceptable to London. Besides giving sundry privileges to the fishermen of Rye, Winchelsea, and other parts of the sea coasts, to sell their fish in the streets of London, and the like privilege to all foreign fishermen in amity with the king ; the Londoners were gratified with the repeal of an act passed the 27th Edward III., by which the mayor, aldermen, and sheriffs, were, in default of good government of the city, to be tried, as delinquents, by an inquest taken from other counties than that of Middlesex. During the same session of parliament, a law was passed that no judge, concurring with any iniquitous measure, should be excused from guilt by pleading either the orders, or the menaces of the king.

Scarcely had the first year of Henry's reign expired, when the citizens of London gave substantial proof of gratitude and devotedness to their sovereign. The Earl of Rutland,

and others, had formed a plot for the assassination of the king, but which being communicated to Henry, he applied to the mayor for assistance. This was so quickly rendered that, in a few hours, six thousand citizens, completely armed, were ready to march under the king's order. The defence of the city was also provided for. The king formed his camp on Hounslow Heath; but the partisans of the rebellion making but little opposition, and a defection arising among their leaders, the army dispersed, and some of the ringleaders were punished.

His Majesty's family had been avowed favourers of the *new doctrine* taught by Wickliffe, but a change of condition had effected an extraordinary alteration in Henry's conduct; and the king, like a second Hazael, was willing to establish himself upon an usurped throne by unjustifiable means. He gave his assent in parliament to a *bill* for delivering over stubborn and relapsed heretics to the secular power. A *writ* had been previously issued, by royal authority, *de heretico comburendo*, or for the burning of heretics, and which had been hurried forward with indecent precipitancy by the clergy. Sir William Sambre, the parish priest of Saint Osyth, London, being the first person burnt in England for heresy. Other victims soon followed. Henry, Prince of Wales, was present when John Bradby, a mechanic, was brought to the stake, at Smithfield, for his belief in the *new doctrine*. The prince offered him a free pardon, before the fire was kindled, on condition of abjuration; he was even taken out of the fire, and offered his life and a pension to recant. The *confessor* sternly refused both proposals, sealing the truth with his blood.

During the same year (1400) the king gave the Londoners, by charter, the custody of all the *gates* and *posterns* of the

city, together with the accustomed tolls from the markets of Cheap, Billingsgate, and Smithfield. The right of *tonage* was also conferred, viz. the weighing of lead, wax, pepper, alum, madder, and other such wares; and that, “for ever.”

The commerce of the city soon evinced the wise administration of the new sovereign. Foreign trade, already found to be the grand source of national wealth, was encouraged; certain exclusive privileges granted to London, in reference to foreign trade, being, by legislation, formally repealed. Foreign merchants were permitted to import their goods without paying a *salvage* to the city, as had been customary. They were also allowed to choose lodgings for themselves, to dispose of their goods without the aid of factors, and all actions for debt, or trespass, against such merchants were to be tried either by the king’s council, the mayor, or aldermen of London, according to law, but not by inquest. The site of the Tun prison, in Cornhill, was appropriated to the erection of a *conduit* for supplying the city with water, and which was brought in leaden pipes from Tyburn brook. A *cage* was erected by the side of the *conduit*, and *stocks* placed over it for the summary punishment of *street-walkers*. And to make the spot the very epitome of justice, a *pillory* was set above all, as a warning to “*thievish millers and cheating bakers.*”

In the year 1404, Henry directed the lord mayor to inquire into a contest, now pending between the goldsmiths’ company and that of the cutlers. This matter having been carefully examined, the chief magistrate reported that the cutlers had a right to work in gold and silver; but that all things made by them, should, according to ancient immunities, be assayed by the goldsmiths. Hereupon the charter granted to the goldsmiths, by Edward III. was confirmed by the parliament, with

additional privileges. During the same year Sir John Woodcock, caused a great number of *wears*, and other obstructions to the navigation of the Thames, to be destroyed. Illicit nets were likewise seized and burned. Thomas, Archbishop of Canterbury, and others, claiming a right in the river, brought their action against the city, which was decided in favour of the latter.

London was again visited by the plague. Its ravages during the year (1407) are said to have been most frightful; not fewer than thirty thousand of the inhabitants having perished by this direful calamity.

But the amusements of a great population are ever going forward, even at the very gates of death. The company of the parish clerks of London, gave a dramatic entertainment to the nobility and gentry of England, at Skinner's Well, near Clerkenwell. These historic *Amens* enacted a piece entitled the *Creation of the World*, in which they evinced considerable talent. From hence the company adjourned to Smithfield, where a tournament, upon a very magnificent scale, was to take place, between the mareschal and nobles of Hainault, the challengers, and the Earl of Somerset, and an equal number of English nobility, defendants. The result of this display of chivalry proved highly honorable to the English; who all, with but one exception, were declared to be victors.

The next year threatened to disturb the peace of London, by an unhappy dispute, at a city entertainment, between the servants of the king's sons, and certain individuals belonging to the court. In the affray the princes themselves received their share of insult; although the mayor and other city authorities, promptly interfered to suppress the tumult. For

this they were summoned before certain commissioners appointed for the purpose, when Chief Justice Gascoyne recommended them to submit to the king's mercy; but they, conscious that the utmost had been done to preserve the peace, refused. On a report being made to the king, he was pleased to express himself satisfied with what had been done. Stock's market and Guildhall were both founded in the course of this same year.

The house of commons, during the whole of Henry's agitated reign, sensible of their own importance, assumed powers until now unknown. On voting the supplies, they appointed treasurers of their own, to see that the money was disbursed for the purposes intended. And on another occasion, when the commons were required to grant supplies, they proposed to the king, in plain words, that the temporalities of the church should be seized, and employed for the exigencies of the state. They alleged that riches only tended to disqualify the clergy for the performance of their sacred functions. The speaker of the house of commons not hesitating to say, that the prayers of the church were a very *slender supply*. The king, indeed, frowned upon the proposals, although sensible that the *talisman* of the church was nearly lost.

Henry's health was now fast declining, remorse of conscience sitting very heavily upon him, and which nothing could assuage. The dissolute habits of his eldest son, the heir apparent, likewise, deeply affected him. The prince and his profligate associates had become a public nuisance, of which Shakspeare, in his two plays called the life and death of Henry IV., gives a most graphic description, embellished, no doubt, occasionally with a little romance. The king, moreover, had sought relief to his perturbed spirit by the practices of superstition. Vows were upon him to visit the holy land

in a crusade ; but while paying his devotions at the shrine of Edward the Confessor, in Westminster abbey, he was seized with an epileptic fit, to which he had of late been subject. During the fit being carried into the *Jerusalem chamber*, on coming to his senses, he enquired where he was ; and, on being told the name of the place, his majesty exclaimed, “ it was prophesied of me that I should die in Jerusalem ; behold here I am, God’s will be done ! ” Having said this he expired.

The accession of Henry V. was accompanied with many fears, from his former dissolute course of life. In this the country was happily disappointed, the young king renouncing all his gay companions ; and with the assistance of his late father’s advisers, applied himself to the duties of his exalted station. His foreign wars, however, engaged too much of his attention, and impoverished his exchequer.

A conspiracy being formed, at the beginning of this reign, against the king’s life, orders were sent to the mayor, Sir Nicholas Falconer, to shut the city gates, and apprehend all suspected persons ; which was accordingly done ; and several of the guilty party were apprehended and punished. The gaol of Newgate became so crowded, that a malignant disease broke out, which carried off the keeper, the turnkeys, and sixty-four of the prisoners.

The Lollards, or Wickliffites, had now greatly increased ; and their movements, it was believed, not being confined to religion, the king thought it necessary to go against them with an armed force, to Ticket-field, in the neighbourhood of Saint Giles ; and taking them by surprise, during the night, many were killed on the spot ; others afterwards suffered the extremity of the law. Lord Cobham their ringleader at this time escaped, though afterwards taken and executed. “ Toleration,”

says Hume, “ is none of the virtues of priests in any form of ecclesiastical government.”

The conservancy of the rivers Thames, Medway, and Lea, was confirmed by an act of parliament, to the city of London in 1414. About the same time likewise a gate was erected on the northern side of the city walls, and called Moorgate, for the convenience of citizens passing and repassing to the adjacent fields and gardens.

Advice having been received on Lord Mayor’s day, and while the mayor elect was riding to Westminster, to qualify for office, of his majesty’s victory over the French at Agincourt, the mayor proceeded, on his return, in company with the Bishop of Winchester, to St. Paul’s cathedral, to assist in a solemn *Te Deum*, which was sung on the occasion. The next day the queen, attended by the city authorities, and a numerous train of the nobility and clergy, walked in procession from St. Paul’s to Westminster Abbey, where a costly oblation was presented at the *shrine* of Edward the Confessor.

During the same year the king returned to London, having been met at Blackheath, by the mayor, aldermen, sheriffs, and three hundred of the principal citizens. The London clergy also, in splendid robes, with rich crosses, and massy censers burning with frankincense, went to the end of Kent-street, to escort the king into the metropolis. His majesty had a number of French nobility with him, as prisoners, being, moreover, laden with the trophies of victory. The city was decorated with rich tapestry, and a number of *pageants* were exhibited, while the magnificent cavalcade was passing. The citizens went to Westminster the next day to give the king a more substantial proof of their loyalty,—a present of a thousand pounds of gold, in two basins of the same metal and value.

The period at which we have now arrived was characterized by the great affluence of some of the citizens. With extreme liberality, Sir Thomas Eyre, who had passed the civic chair, moved with a desire to provide for the poor of the city in times of scarcity, built *Leadenhall* at his own expence, and gave it to the city to be employed as a *public granary*. He likewise founded a chapel on the eastern side of the granary, that, for the benefit of those who frequented the market, divine service might be performed every market day. About this time (1417) likewise Holborn was first paved.

In this year (1419) the city of London was honoured, for the third time, by having Sir Richard Whittington for their chief magistrate. The wonderful stories told of him and his *cat* are doubtless based upon truth, although by lapse of time it is impossible to distinguish truth from fiction. Certain it is that, from circumstances comparatively humble, Sir Richard had risen to great eminence. *Alice*, his wife, according to tradition, was the daughter of the person to whom he had served his time; and to this connexion he owed his prosperity. It has already been mentioned that the use of sea-coal was prohibited by law; yet we know that at every subsequent period the import of coals formed a considerable branch of commerce in the Thames. It is not unreasonable to believe that the crown, partially at least, abrogated this *statute* in Whittington's favour, by granting him the privilege of importing coals; and whereby he amassed a large fortune. If so, the *cat* would not prove to have been a whiskered, four-footed, and mouse-killing *cat*; but a coasting, sailing, and coal-carrying *cat*—now called a *collier*. Sir Richard gave a splendid entertainment to his sovereign and the queen in Guildhall, in honour of the king's conquests in France, during which the knight

caused a fire to be made of cinnamon and other aromatic wood, in which the king's bond for 10,000 marks, due to the company of mercers; another of 1500 marks, due to the chamber of London; another of 2000 marks, due to the grocers; and several others, making the gross amount of the whole £60,000, which had been borrowed by the king, and which this munificent citizen told the king he had paid, in order to have the honour of making his majesty a present of the whole. Sir Richard, moreover, built St. Michael's church, in Vintry-ward, and added a college to it for poor scholars. He also erected an hospital, called *God's-house*, handsomely endowed St. Bartholomew's hospital, and left sufficient money for the rebuilding of Newgate.

Henry, on his return to France, so far completed the conquest of the kingdom, that, by treaty, he was declared and acknowledged heir of the monarchy; and that France and England should for ever be united under one king. Henry married Catherine, the daughter of Charles VI. king of France, and returned with her to London, where they were received by the citizens with every possible demonstration of joy. But scarcely were these rejoicings ended, when Henry was arrested by the hand of death. He was afflicted with a painful disease, which unskilful treatment rendered mortal. He died in 1422, being thirty-four years of age.

London had continued to flourish, although the late king spent the greater part of his time at a distance from the metropolis. Henry VI. was only nine months old when his father died. Cabals are sure to arise during a king's minority. These soon appeared, and continued during the whole of Henry's long and miserable reign. Sir John Coventry, who was mayor in 1426, preserved the city in safety during an

attempt made by the Bishop of Winchester to gain possession of it, in opposition to one of the appointed guardians of the kingdom—the Duke of Gloucester, brother to the late king.

Considerable local improvements were made in London about this time. The city became better supplied with water, by the erection of conduits in different parts. The quality of foreign wine was also much improved by the vigilance of Sir John Rainwell, the mayor, who prevented fraud from being practised in the sale of this article. An ancient privilege was confirmed of making all servants or slaves free, who had continued in a citizen's employ for one year and a day. In consideration also of services done to the crown, the children of citizens might be put out apprentices, though their fathers were not possessed of land to the value of twenty shillings per annum according o former usage.

In 1429, Archbishop Chicheley held a convocation in London, to appoint delegates who should represent the English church in the council of Basil. These representatives were instructed to protest against papal dispensations, pluralities, non-residence, and other abuses, which existed in the church. The persecuting spirit of the clergy had continued unchanged, for Sir Richard Wick, a priest in Essex, was burnt on Tower-hill for his religious opinions, although accounted a pious and holy man.

John Hatherly, with the king's permission, rebuilt and beautified the cross in Cheapside, which had been erected by king Edward I., to the memory of his beloved queen, Eleanor. The common granary of the city, and the conduits, were also improved.

A dispute arose in 1442, concerning the election of the lord-mayor, Ralph Holland, a merchant-tailor, being placed in

opposition to Robert Clapton, a draper. Sir John Padesley, the mayor, interfered, committing some of the rioters to Newgate. The king's letter received on this subject, enjoins that such election shall be made by the aldermen, and other of the more discreet and able citizens, especially warned and summoned for that purpose.

The year 1447 is memorable for several events, though of a very different character. Queen Margaret, whom the king had lately married, made her public entry into London, the citizens sparing no expence to do her honour. But they were ill requited for the same, for almost immediately after, the misguided queen embued her hands in the blood of the Duke of Gloucester, usually called *good Duke Humphrey*. His grace was apprehended on a charge of high-treason, and privately murdered the very night of his commitment. Four grammar-schools were established this year by the clergymen of the respective parishes of Great All-hallows, St. Andrew's Holborn, St. Peter's Cornhill, and St. Mary Cole-church.

The evil of a weak government was never more apparent than in the insurrection of Jack Cade, under the assumed name of Mortimer. This impostor, from various pretexts, raised a large army, with which he at first encamped on Blackheath. The king marched against him with fifteen thousand men. The rebels retreated to the woods near Seven-oaks; but returning, they fell upon a detachment commanded by Sir Humphery Stafford, which was in a manner cut to pieces. The rebels immediately marching towards London, which they succeeded in entering. Lord Say, high treasurer of England, and Sir James Cramer, sheriff of Kent, were beheaded in a summary manner by Cade's order. The city also was plundered. The insurgents having met with a partial repulse, an act of indem-

nity was proclaimed in Southwark the following night, which had the desired effect of dispersing the rebel army. Cade, left almost alone, fled in disguise into the woody part of Sussex, where he was detected and slain. His body was brought to London, and his head, with those of nine others, being fastened upon poles, were exhibited upon London-bridge.

In the year 1454, John Norman, the mayor-elect, introduced the custom of going to Westminster by water, building a stately barge for the purpose. Several of the city companies, in imitation of their chief magistrate, did the same. These barges were adorned with paintings, streamers, and flags. Although this *pageantry* has, of late years, greatly declined, yet the practice of going by water is still continued. Several additional grammar-schools were, about this time, founded, and the composition for the maintenance of the London clergy finally adjusted.

The kingdom had long been in an agitated state, arising from the incapacity of the king, and the proceedings of Richard, Duke of York, whose claims to the crown were superior to those of the reigning monarch. After various battles, the Duke of York was at length killed. These tumultuous movements were but a continuation of that struggle for the crown, which had been begun by Henry IV. and known as the contest of the *Roses*, the *house of York* taking for their banner the *Whit Rose*, that of *Lancaster*, the *Red*. The Londoners, amidst these cabals, became very anxious to maintain the peace of the city. Five thousand citizens were always on guard during the day, and two thousand at night. Lord Scales, in the king's name, demanded admission into the city with a body of troops. This, however, was refused, upon which the city was fired upon from the tower. In the meanwhile, the Earl of March, the

eldest son of the Duke of York, having landed in England with an armed force, and gained some advantage over the king's troops, the tower surrendered to him, and Scales, in attempting to escape, was killed, and his body thrown into the Thames.

The northern barons having raised an army for the defence of the royal cause, headed by the ever vigilant and courageous Margaret, were at first victorious, and approached near to London. Margaret sent to the city for provisions, a request with which the mayor would have complied ; but the citizens in a tumultuary manner refused their being sent. The recorder, and some of the aldermen, went to Barnet, to make an apology for what had been done, and the city was about to be given up to the queen's party ; but just at that moment, the royal troops, before defeated and driven northward by the Earl of March, was admitted into the city. King Henry, by a convention of the nobility, clergy, and gentry, was formally deposed for his incapacity, and the Earl of March proclaimed king by the name Edward IV.

The present mode of electing the mayor and sheriffs by the *livery*, took place in 1473. In this year, Sir William Hampton, being mayor, greatly improved the police of the city. *Stocks*, for the summary punishment of petty offences, were erected in every ward. About this time, printing was introduced by William Caxton, citizen and mercer. Under the patronage of the abbot of Westminster, he published a small book called “*The Game at Chess*,” being the first book printed in England. The city walls were likewise partially repaired by the exertions of Sir Ralph Joceline, lord-mayor.

The latter years of Edward's reign were stained by crimes of almost every kind, but his career was short. He died

in leaving his kingdom and infant family, under the protection of his brother, the diabolical and heartless Richard.

The tale of woe during Richard's administration may be quickly told. The queen's brother, the Earl of Rivers, and her son by a former marriage, were immediately ordered for execution. The *princes*, Edward's children, were most reluctantly on the queen's part, but by the intercession of the Archbishops of Canterbury and York, delivered to the care of their uncle, and were, by his orders, murdered in the tower. Sir Edmund Shaw, the mayor, won over to Richard's party, by the eloquent and worthless Duke of Buckingham, engaged his brother to preach at St. Paul's Cross in favour of the Protector. This clerical sycophant had the audacity to assert from the pulpit that the late king was the illegitimate offspring of the Duke of York, and that the protector, Richard, was the only true and proper heir to the throne. This harangue was heard with astonishment, mingled with contempt. Another effort to procure the recognition of Richard's pretension was attempted by Buckingham, in the guildhall of the city, which was but very partially successful, a few of the rabble only exclaiming *God save King Richard!* But a throne procured by the violation of every principle could never be stable. The new king was regarded with horror by all classes of society, and the citizens only waited for an opportunity to assist in dethroning the desperate and wretched intruder. Henry, Earl of Richmond, son of Edmund Tudor, the son of Henry V., had by the late king been detained in Brittany; but now hastening to England, on an invitation to ascend the throne, landed at Ravenspur, in Yorkshire; and, proceeding southward, was met by Richard, who not wanting in personal courage, gave him battle at Bosworth. Richard was slain, and the Earl of

Richmond acknowledged as their king, on condition that he would marry the princess Elizabeth, daughter of Edward IV. This Henry engaged to do.

Few sovereigns ever ascended a throne under more auspicious circumstances than the first monarch of the house of Tudor; yet few have done less for their country, or used less means for insuring the favour of the people. The king looked ungraciously upon London almost from the first day of his reign. After the memorable battle of Bosworth Field, Henry hastened to enter his capital, and the mayor and corporation went as far as Highgate to meet him, and escort him into the city. But the king, with that coldness which ever distinguished him, chose to enter in a close *litter*, proceeding first to St. Paul's, where he returned public thanks for his victory, and deposited the standards which he had taken in battle. He took up his abode for the night at the bishop's palace, and the next day, having summoned a council, he solemnly renewed the engagements which he had made previously to the late battle.

Two years after Henry's accession to the throne, in 1487, the jurisdiction of the lord-mayor over the Thames was confirmed. The citizens also were not backward with loans, benevolences, and contributions, at the king's request; yet it is remarkable that less cordiality subsisted between the present sovereign and the citizens of London than during any other reign, in the whole compass of our history. On one occasion, the king did indeed give a grand entertainment in Westminster-hall to the principal citizens, and conferred the honour of knighthood upon Ralph Astry, the mayor.

The year 1501 was rendered famous by the arrival of Katherine of Arragon, infanta of Spain, who, having landed at Plymouth, and proceeding to London, was escorted into the

city with due honours and splendour by the corporation. Two days after her arrival, she was married in St. Paul's cathedral to Aurthur, Prince of Wales, the lord-mayor and the city authorities being present. The newly married couple, after a residence of a few days, were accompanied by the mayor and corporation in their splendid barges to Westminster.

The year following, the king began to take down the old and decayed *lady-chapel*, at the east end of Westminster Abbey, erecting on its site the beautifully splendid mausoleum, still known as Henry the Seventh's chapel. The improvements in the metropolis during this reign, were principally the cleansing of the Fleet-river down to the Thames, hereby rendering it navigable for large craft up to Holborn-bridge. About the same time, Houndsditch, which had long remained a noisome receptacle for all kinds of filth, was filled up, and paved over; but even at this early period, the inhabitants of this district were principally Jews, pawnbrokers, usurers, and dealers in old clothes. Soon after, in 1507, St. Paul's school was built by Dean Collet, the Mercers' company being appointed its trustees.

Henry VII. died at Richmond in 1509, a loss which the city of London had but little reason to deplore. The king left behind him an immense amount of money, jewels, and plate, which he had exacted in every possible way. One short illustration will be sufficient. The Earl of Oxford, his favourite general, having splendidly entertained his sovereign, had a mind on his departure to make a little farther display; forgetting the miserly propensities of his guest, he ordered all his retainers, with their liveries and badges, to be drawn up in two lines, that their appearance might be the more attractive. "My lord," said the king, "I have heard much of your hospitality, and these hand-

some gentlemen are, no doubt, your menial servants." The earl smiled assent; alleging that it was to do honour to his majesty's presence. "By my faith," rejoined the king, "I thank you for your good cheer, but I must not allow my laws to be broken in my sight. My attorney must speak with you." Oxford, it is believed, paid 15,000 marks for the expiation of this offence.

Henry VIII. succeeded his father, in the year of his age. He soon afterwards married Katherine, the widow of his elder brother, and proceeded with his queen from his former residence, the Tower, through the city, to Westminster, every demonstration of respectful congratulation being shown them by the way. No monarch ever ascended a throne under more auspicious circumstances ; and yet his reign is marked with those stains of wanton bloodshed which would disgrace the annals even of a nation of savages.

In the second year of the new king's reign, the monarch, desirous of witnessing the grand cavalcade of the city-watch, on the eve of St. John's day, visited the city *incog*, dressed as a yeoman of the guard. This ceremony, which took place twice in every year, accompanied by the lord-mayor and other city officers, afforded the king so much pleasure, that he returned on the eve of St. Peter's day, accompanied by the queen and the principal nobility. The procession was conducted upon a very magnificent scale, nearly a thousand large lanterns, fastened to the end of long poles, being employed.

Some attempts had been made in a former reign to establish a navy, the large ship *Harry*, having been built by the late king. A new impetus having been given to navigation and commercial enterprise, by the recent discoveries of Christopher Columbus, and others, both in the western and eastern hemi-

spheres. An English royal navy, for the general purposes of national defence, was now first established by the government. The fraternity of the Trinity House was instituted in 1512, and the dock-yards of Deptford and Woolwich established. Soon after, forts were constructed at Gravesend and Tilbury, for the better defence of the Thames. Improvements were likewise made in the fosses, and fortifications, which surrounded the city.

It was about this time that London was again visited by a singular and afflictive epidemic, called the *sweating sickness*, which carried off a great number of citizens. This disease was believed to be peculiar to England and Englishmen, and was therefore designated in foreign countries, *suder anglus*, or the English sweat. This distemper again raged with fatal malignity in 1521. Henry granted a charter of incorporation to the physicians. Considerable improvements were likewise made for cleaning different parts of the city. From the payments made for these improvements, it would appear that the price of labour was as follows:—for chief ditcher, or foreman, 7d. a day; the second class ditcher, 6d.; to other ditchers, 5d.; and labourers, or vagabonds, 1d. each, a day. The city finding them meat and drink.

The emperor, Charles V., visited England in 1522. The king condescended to meet him at Dover, and accompanied him to Greenwich, at that time a royal residence. When the emperor arrived in London, the lord-mayor, aldermen, and sheriffs, with all their formalities, attended by the principal citizens, received the royal visitor with a magnificence almost incredible but from incontestible authority of the pompous habits of this age. The emperor lodged at Blackfriars. The king and queen of Denmark paid a visit to the king during the

same year, being splendidly received, and handsomely lodged by the loyal, but obsequious citizens. The royal visitors, accompanied by Henry and the queen consort, went into Cheapside on the eve of St. Peter's day, to witness the ceremony of mustering the city watch.

Henry, under the advice of his minister, Cardinal Wolsey, ordered a survey of the kingdom, in order to take a *tenth* of the property of the laity, and a *fourth* of that of the clergy; but the opposition made to this arbitrary measure by the Londoners, induced the haughty monarch to pause before he proceeded to a rigid exaction of it. The fact was, that the immense treasures amassed by his late father were dissipated, and that the prodigal king had to contend with all the inconveniences of an empty exchequer. A parliament was therefore called, to meet at Blackfriars, but the supplies were granted so unwillingly, and with so many restrictions, that for seven years after this epoch, (1523) no parliament was called.

The acts of this last parliament deserve notice, for having extended the jurisdiction of the corporation two miles beyond the city, so as to include the more distant parishes within its authority. By these acts, the town or city of Westminster, the parishes of St. Martin in the Fields, our Lady in the Strand, St. Clement the Dane; west of Temple-bar, St. Giles's in the Fields, St. Andrew's in Holborn, the town and borough of Southwark, the parishes of Shoreditch, Whitechapel, St. John's Street, Clerkenwell, St. Botolph without Aldgate, St. Katherine's, near the Tower, and Bermondsey, were added. From this a pretty correct idea may be formed of what London, in an enlarged sense of that word, really was. Different parts, now united, were then detached, the intervals being public or unenclosed fields. The Strand was then occupied by detached

mansions of the nobility and gentry, and surrounded by extensive and splendid gardens. A considerable portion of the parishes of St. Martin and St. Giles were literally, as they are still called, in the fields, as was also a great portion of the city of Westminster, and the parishes or villages of Clerkenwell, Shoreditch, Whitechapel, and the borough of Southwark.

In the latter part of this year, (1524-25) the plague raged with such fury in London, that the king and his court thought it prudent to retire to Eltham. The law term was adjourned, and the city deserted by its inhabitants, so that the ensuing Christmas, from its lack of mirth and festivity, was emphatically named "*the still Christmas.*"

The year 1527 has become memorable in the history of England, by the doubts which Henry VIII. now began to express of the unlawfulness of his marriage with Katherine of Arragon, his brother Arthur's widow. What first suggested such a subject to the mind of the king it may be extremely difficult to determine; but to believe a man like the king, of unrestrained passion and caprice, should have been actuated by motives purely moral and religious, is impossible. According to Henry's own testimony, the queen had always conducted herself with great propriety as a wife; but she, older than himself by six years, possessed at no time any great external charms, and had now fallen, according to report, into a premature old age. It is absurd, therefore, to suppose that the king was guided in this important and delicate affair, either by the decision of Scripture, or the reveries of St. Thomas of Aquinas; but by the inward workings of a corrupt and licentious heart, and the unrestrained ravings of a perverse will. Henry was in religion, as in every thing else, a heartless tyrant, and a consummate hypocrite. Wolsey, his minister, did what he could

to serve his task-master; and, but for the jealousy and precipitancy of the king, his desired divorce with his queen would doubtless have been procured from the Roman pontiff in the usual way. The affairs of Clement were, at this particular juncture, peculiarly situated. He was desirous of pleasing Henry, but still more anxious of avoiding giving offence to the Emperor Charles, the uncle of the queen, and whose prisoner he now was. Hence the necessity of delay. Our limits forbid only a very hasty glance at these important and memorable transactions. Wolsey had been sent to Rome to forward the king's wishes, and the Roman pontiff had so far yielded, that Cardinal Campegio had been appointed joint commissioner with Wolsey, to enquire into this matter. The arrival of these two *churchmen* created a very strong feeling on the part of the citizens, and great fears were entertained of some outbreak amongst them. The queen's cause was justly popular. She herself also was much respected and beloved. A numerous assemblage of the nobility, prelates, the lord-mayor, the aldermen, and principal commoners, being convened in the hall of the palace of Bridewell, when the king addressed them in person. Royal speeches have seldom done any good.

The two legates opened their court; and London witnessed the extraordinary spectacle of a king and queen being cited before a spiritual court, the president of which was a foreigner. The king answered to his name when called; but the queen, instead of answering to hers, rose from her seat, threw herself at the king's feet, and made a pathetic harangue. The purport of this has been expressed in so appropriate and graphic a manner, by a favourite poet, that we can but quote it:—

“ Sir—I desire you to do me right and justice;
And to bestow your pity on me: for

I am a most poor woman, and a stranger,
Born out of your dominions ; having here
No judge indifferent, nor no mere assurance
Of equal friendship and proceeding. Alas, sir,
In what have I offended you ? what cause
Hath my behaviour given to your displeasure,
That thus you should proceed to put me off,
And take your good grace from me. Heaven witness,
I have been to you a true and humble wife,
At all times to your will conformable :
Ever in fear to kindle your dislike,
Yea, subject to your countenance : glad or sorry,
As I saw it inclined. When was the hour,
I ever contradicted your desire,
Or made it not mine too ? Or which of your friends
Have I not strove to love, although I knew
He were mine enemy ? what friend of mine,
That had to him deriv'd your anger, did I
Continue in my liking ? nay, gave not notice
He was from thence discharg'd. Sir, call to mind
That I have been your wife, in this obedience,
Upward of twenty years, and have been blest
With many children by you : If, in the course
And process of this time, you can report,
And prove it too, against mine honour aught,
My bond to wedlock, or my love and duty
Against your sacred person, in God's name
Turn me away ; and let the foul'st contempt
Shut door upon me, and so give me up
To the sharpest kind of justice. Please you, sir,
The king, your father, was reputed for
A prince most prudent, of an excellent
And unmatch'd wit and judgment : Ferdinand,
My father, king of Spain, was reckon'd one
The wisest prince, that there had reign'd by many
A year before : It is not to be question'd

That they had gather'd a wise council to them
Of every realm, that did debate this business,
Who deem'd our marriage lawful; Wherefore I humbly
Beseech you, sir, to spare me, till I may
Be by my friends in Spain advis'd, whose counsel
I will implore: If not, i'the name of God,
Your pleasure be fulfill'd!"

Henry determined to carry his point at all hazards. The pope lingered in giving his assent, and Henry's precipitation at length, for ever, severed England from papal jurisdiction. Cardinal Wolsey was disgraced, and died broken hearted in 1530. The affair of Queen Katherine's divorce proceeded; the real cause of this decision becoming at length evident by the king's marriage with Anne Boleyn.

Queen Katherine, during the whole of the iniquitous proceedings against her, retained the same unshaken self-possession. Neither entreaties, or promises, or threats, could move her. She regarded herself as the king's lawful and faithful wife, and therefore, legitimately, queen of England. Her resistance to the caprices of her husband, commanded the respect of the whole nation; and every succeeding generation has continued to place her in the first rank among virtuous and distinguished females. The citizens of London became clamorous in the queen's favour, regarding her as a martyr to Henry's uncontrolled lust. The king and his advisers, if such he could be said to have, became very unpopular.

In the year 1531, a general muster of the citizens, from the age of sixteen to that of sixty, was made by royal authority. A muster, to the extent of about fifteen thousand men, accordingly took place at Mile-end; where an account of the weapons, armour, and other military accoutrements belonging to the city, were likewise taken. The day ended by a pro-

cession of an imposing character through the city to Westminster; and, passing round St. James's Park, returned to the eastern extremity of the city.

The citizens, however, were witnesses of a still more splendid pageant during the next year, in the coronation of the king's newly married wife—Queen Anne Boleyn. She was conducted by the lord-mayor and the city companies from Greenwich, by water, to the Tower, and then from St. Paul's to Westminster by land. Nothing could surpass the gorgeous pomp, and stately magnificence of this procession, into which the Londoners appear most joyously to have entered. Indeed, a considerable change had already taken place in the public mind. The parliament had become weary of the expence and tyranny of the Roman pontiff; and this had given a strong impulse in favour of a change to the nation generally, and to London in particular. All the bishops, Fisher, bishop of Rochester only excepted, voted in the upper house for a deliverance from the usurpations of Rome. Henry's religion, though but sheer superstition, was at first adverse to the new doctrines; yet he was fond of power, and having proceeded against the whole body of the clergy under the obsolete statute of *privisors*, which had ruined Wolsey; and the clergy knowing that reason, or equity, was nothing as opposed to the king's arbitrary will, the *convocation* agreed to pay a fine of £118,840 for the pardon of an offence which they had no power but to commit; and likewise made a confession that *the king was the protector and supreme head of the church and clergy of England*. Such were the unrighteous beginnings of the Protestant reformation in Great Britain. Anne Boleyn had been brought up in favour of the new doctrines, and at this time possessed considerable influ-

ence over the mind of her sanguinary husband. Dr. Thomas Cranmer had been raised to the archiepiscopal see of Canterbury, and may be regarded as the director of Henry's conscience, presuming that he ever had one. It is melancholy to find so excellent a man, as Cranmer undoubtedly was, becoming the panderer to the atrocities of his royal master.

Henry, notwithstanding what he had done against Clement, the Roman pontiff, and all the injury he had received from him, was still desirous of being reconciled to his *ghostly father*. Francis, king of France, undertook to mediate between the contending parties, mutually afraid of each other, and with every appearance of ultimate success. "But the greatest affairs," remarks the historian Hume, "often depend on the most frivolous incidents." The English courier who had been sent to Rome having been detained beyond the day appointed, the pope and cardinals entered the consistory, the marriage of Henry and Katherine was pronounced valid, and the king declared to be excommunicated if he refused to accede to this decision. The separation between Rome and England became complete.

The minds of the people had already been prepared for this event. The time-serving parliament, without considering into whose hands they were committing the ecclesiastical as well as civil authority, enacted that no payments should henceforth be made to the apostolic chamber, that all provisions, bulls, and dispensations be abolished; that monasteries be subjected to the visitation of the king alone; that the law against heresy be moderated; that speaking against the pope's authority be declared not to be heresy; that bishops be appointed by a *congé d'elire* from the crown; that convocations be assembled by the king's authority only; and that no new

canons be made without his consent. The clergy in convocation reiterated the same sentiments, declaring that the bishop of Rome had no more jurisdiction in England than any other foreign bishop; that his authority, and that of his predecessors, was an usurpation, exercised only by the sufferance of English princes. The bishops accordingly took out new commissions from the crown, in which they expressly affirm that all their spiritual and episcopal authority were derived from the *king*, and were dependent on his good pleasure.

But as if such adulation and concession were not enough, the next parliament conferred on the king the title of the only supreme head on earth of the Church of England. Power was also granted to the king “to visit, repress, redress, reform, order, correct, restrain, or amend, all errors, heresies, abuses, offences, contempts, and enormities, which fell under any spiritual authority, or jurisdiction.” To the king was moreover given a right to all annats, and tithes of benefices, which had formerly been paid to the court of Rome.

All these extraordinary changes were made without much opposition. Fisher, bishop of Rochester, and the late chancellor, Sir Thomas More, alone frowned upon them: Cranmer and Cromwell took great pains to bring them to a contrary opinion, but in vain. Henry’s method was a short one; and these two great men, for to this appellation they are eminently entitled, were brought to the scaffold.

In 1534, Holborn, Holborn-bridge, and the streets of Southwark, were paved by act of Parliament; and soon after the street leading from Aldgate to Whitechapel church, the upper part of Chancery-lane, the way leading from Holborn-bars to St. Giles’s in the Fields, “as far,” says the statute, “as any habitation is on both sides of the street.” Gray’s-inn-

lane, Shoe-lane, and Fetter-lane were also paved about the same time.

A scarcity of provisions taking place in the year 1542, the common council passed an act restraining the lord-mayor from having more than seven dishes at dinner or supper, the aldermen and sheriffs being limited to six, the sword bearer to four, and the mayor's and sheriffs' attendants to three. Other prohibitions were given against luxurious feastings.

Three years afterwards, the twelve chief companies of the city advanced the king a large sum on a mortgage of certain crown lands. The citizens likewise raised a regiment of a thousand foot soldiers, which they completely fitted out as a reinforcement to the army in France. Alderman Read having refused a *benevolence* to the king, was, without any trial, sent into Scotland as a common soldier.

Peace being concluded between England and France in 1546, was commemorated with great splendour in London; and on the arrival of the French ambassador soon after, he was met by the lord-mayor, aldermen, and citizens, and conducted to the bishop's palace, where he was presented by the city with four large silver flagons, richly gilt, besides wine and other costly presents.

The king's health had long been declining, and it now became apparent to those about him that he could not live long. Still no one dared to be the messenger of such intelligence to him. He had become very corpulent, and dropsy was fast coming on. His mind also was ill at ease. Cranmer was at length sent for; but on his arrival the king had become speechless, and died on the 28th of January, 1547. Never did a reformation in religion fall into worse hands than those of Henry VIII. He left the Church of England scarcely

half-reformed; a state of things which has continued to the present hour. Henry himself was neither Papist or Protestant. Bishop Burnet, in his abridged History of the Reformation, says that “he was both sudden and violent in his revenges, and stuck at nothing by which he could either gratify his lust or his passion.” “I do not deny,” adds the bishop, “that he is to be numbered among the *ill* princes, yet I cannot rank him with the worst.” If there are many among princes worse than he, then must they be bad indeed!

Edward VI. succeeded his father, being, most unhappily for the country, a child of only nine years of age. Many of the young king’s advisers probably meant well, and the reformation assumed a more steady aspect than during the vacillating and turbulent reign of his father. The Book of Common Prayer was set forth, and the Holy Scriptures, which had been printed during the former reign, revised and republished. How little was yet known of the Bible, may be learned from the fact that, of the former edition of the scriptures, only five hundred copies were printed. The *rood*, or figure of the virgin, and other superstitious emblems were, at the beginning of this reign, formally removed from St. Paul’s church.

One of the first improvements in London was the re-establishment of the city watch, which had been suppressed by the late king’s order. Edward, in 1550, granted a charter which conveyed to the city an extensive property in Southwark, comprising the manor, and all manorial rights over it, together with a large civil jurisdiction. The lord mayor, from this time, until the recent establishment of the police force, continued, at stated times, to hold a court in Southwark. But now criminal cases, heard by the police magistrates, are sent

either to the Surrey quarter-sessions, or the central criminal court of the Old Bailey.

About the same time, the Protector Somerset having rendered himself unpopular, the citizens united in a cabal against him, and Sir Philip Hobby being deputed to wait upon the king with a remonstrance against him, the lord protector was soon afterwards committed to the Tower, whither he was conducted by the citizens, with marks of brutal exultation. The protector soon regained his liberty; but, being recommitted, he made fearful reparation for what he was charged with doing, by a public execution. He was beheaded, on Tower-hill, January 22, 1551.

The royal exchequer being exhausted, the bank of Antwerp advanced money to the king on the security of the city; and the king, in gratitude, was pleased to incorporate the mayor, commonalty, and citizens of London, governors of the hospital of St. Thomas the Apostle, together with those of Christ's hospital and Bridewell. St. Thomas's hospital was part of the purchase of the manor of Southwark, and which, at considerable expence, they had lately repaired and enlarged.

The poor young king, naturally of a feeble frame of body, although, from the accounts given of him by contemporary writers, a prodigy in mind, had not reached his sixteenth year when death overtook him, in 1553, after a nominal reign of six years.

How matters might have been had Edward's life been prolonged, it may be difficult to determine; but certain it is, that by his death a stain was put upon our national history which nothing can efface. Mary, Edward's half-sister, succeeded to the throne; and, during her short reign of five years, besides innumerable imprisonments, whippings, and tortures, two

hundred and eighty-four men and women, according to Bishop Burnet, were burnt at the stake, in London, and the provincial towns. The blood of these victims still cry from beneath the altar, “ How long, O Lord, holy and true, dost thou not judge and avenge our blood upon Babylon the great, the mother of harlots, and abomination of the earth ! ”

Immediately on the death of Edward, the council met at Barnard’s castle, when after consulting the lord-mayor and aldermen, they determined, contrary to the young king’s will, not to disturb the succession, but proclaim the princess Mary, now in her thirty-eighth year, queen of England. Which being accordingly done in Cheapside, they proceeded to St. Paul’s, where the *Te Deum* was sung in commemoration of the event. The new queen made a public entry into the city, on the 3rd of August following, preceded by the lord-mayor in full civic dress bearing a golden sceptre.

Mary at first promised liberty of conscience in religion to all her subjects ; but she too soon gave proof how little confidence is to be placed in princes. Bonner was restored to the see of London, and his chaplain, willing to curry favour with his master, cast reflexions upon the memory of the deceased king in a sermon which he preached at St. Paul’s. His hearers, however, were not at all pleased with such remarks, and a hissing throughout the church presently began, followed by pelting the *parson* with stones and brick-bats. One, more incensed than the rest, threw a dagger at him which stuck in the pulpit.

Her majesty, in the very first year of her reign, demanded a loan, another name for a gift, of £20,000 from the city, and which was levied upon the aldermen, and one hundred and twenty of the chief commoners. Such a practice was by no

means new, and the citizens accordingly met it with as good a grace as they could.

The day before her coronation, which was solemnized with great pomp on the 1st of October of the same year, Mary rode in state from the Tower, through the city to Westminster. The lord-mayor and citizens escorted her with the greatest respect. Of this the queen was so sensible, that on alighting at the Royal palace of Whitehall, her public thanks were rendered to his lordship and the corporation. The lord-mayor, moreover acted as chief butler at the coronation, assisted by twelve of the principal citizens. For this honourable service the mayor received a gold cup and cover, of seventeen ounces weight.

The first parliament summoned in this reign were disposed to be more obsequious than might have been expected, especially on matters of religion. The mass was everywhere restored; and those parties who had been active in the promotion of reform were shut up in prison. Scenes of blood quickly followed, into the particulars of which our limits forbid us to enter.

A matter was now to be agitated which greatly engaged the attention of the whole nation, and of London in particular. The queen had signified her intentions to marry; and after some time, Philip of Spain, then a widower, but only twenty-seven years of age, was declared to be her intended husband. The lord mayor, aldermen, and forty of the principal commoners, were summoned to attend the privy council, when the lord chancellor first announced her majesty's determination. A general defection in the city followed; and the queen justly dreading the power and influence of the citizens thought it necessary to repair to Guildhall, where in a long and soothing speech, she addressed the corporation, and which produced

a very good effect. The city was left to the care of the mayor, and lord Howard.

Notwithstanding this a great many of the citizens flocked to the standard of Sir Thomas Wyat, others being already in arms. Had any foreign power now interfered, or had the rebellion itself been conducted with that prudence and firmness which such a movement required, the result might have proved most disastrous to the royal cause. As it was the queen's arms became successful, although not without a dreadful effusion of human blood, followed by a persecuting massacre still more terrible.

A city jury who at Guildhall had acquitted Sir Nicholas Throckmorton were summoned before the queen's council, and fined each £500. The parliament which her majesty convened, were notwithstanding, but little disposed to concur in the measures proposed by the court of investing Philip of Spain with civil authority. Consent was given to the marriage, but great restraints were laid upon the queen's intended husband. Mary seems to have waited the arrival of this prince with considerable impatience. Whether this anxiety arose from any affection which she had for him is not quite apparent; but when she found that her subjects generally entertained the greatest aversion for the event, her heart sickened within her, and the whole English nation henceforth became the object of her resentment.

At length the moment so impatiently expected arrived. Philip landed at Southampton, and hastening to London married the queen a few days after at Westminster. The bride and bridegroom made a most pompous entry into London, Philip displaying his wealth with considerable ostentation. The citizens received them with every testimonial of

attachment, no expense being spared to do them honor. They afterwards went to Windsor as their place of residence. But the *honey-moon* of this cursed woman, though a king's daughter, soon waned. Her person, never very agreeable, soon became loathsome to her husband : she was very jealous ; and Philip, on his part, sought every opportunity of being away from her. She fondly hoped that her husband was soon to become a father, and an heir given to the crown of England, but in this her sanguine expectations soon failed her, and it became more evident to others than to herself that God, in mercy to mankind, had laid an interdict against her having children. Her health visibly became feeble. What was supposed to be pregnancy, proved in reality to be dropsy ; every reflection of her mind tormented her ; her subjects detested her ; her husband forsook her ; the prospect of Elizabeth's succession to the throne haunted her ; and passing her time in melancholy and solitude, disease soon began to make fearful inroads upon a feeble constitution. Execrable as were her character and conduct, she now became an object of pity ; and the nation soon perceived that her unhappy reign would soon terminate in death.

Before bringing this period of our history to a close, we may just observe, that the expence of serving offices in the city had now become so great that the principal citizens chose rather to retire into the country than incur it. In consequence of this it was determined, that the future mayors of the city should be assisted in the charges consequent upon the civic festival of lord mayor's day. For the honor of the city, therefore, and for providing a sumptuous entertainment at Guildhall, the sum of £100 was allowed.

In 1557 a most malignant fever broke out in London pro-

ducing a fearful mortality. In the course of ten months seven of the aldermen were carried off by its ravages. During the next year the queen borrowed of the chief city companies the sum of £20,000 on the security of certain lands, twelve per cent. being allowed as the annual interest thereon. The treasury had been greatly impoverished by the large supplies of money which the queen had furnished to her husband Philip.

The broken hearted Mary died in November 1558, after a short and unhappy reign of five years, and was succeeded by her sister the princess Elizabeth.

The character of queen Elizabeth has been greatly overrated. The most that can be said in praise of her government is, that it was firm. Her personal conduct was always mean, odious, and tyrannical. As a woman she was the slave of *coquetry*, from the age of twenty-five to seventy; and as a queen ever asserted her prerogative above law and justice. A Dr. Warner, a clergyman of the Church of England, has drawn her character with considerable truth. Having acknowledged her “being a wise and politic princess for delivering the kingdom from the difficulties in which it was involved at her accession,” he adds “that she treated her protestant subjects with severity by her high commission court, against law, against liberty, and against the rights of human nature. If these are not flagrant instances of weakness and misrule which her ministers never encouraged; but oft-times dissuaded her as far as they durst, and which were not owing to sudden starts of passion, but to her own tyrannical disposition, then all arbitrary power may be defended as just and lawful. The passion of Elizabeth was to preserve her crown and her prerogative: and every measure which she her-

self directed, or approved when projected by her ministers, was subservient to these two purposes. To this “ we are to place all the measures which she directed, and *she alone*, against the disturbers of the uniformity which was established. *To her alone* it was owing at first, and not to her bishops that no concession or indulgence was granted to tender consciences. She understood her prerogative, which was as dear to her as her crown and life : but she understood nothing of the rights of conscience in matters of religion ; and like the absurd king her father, she would have no opinion in religion, acknowledged at least, but her own.”—“ Where her interest called upon her to neglect the reformed religion, she did it without scruple. She differed from her sister in this, that she would not part with her *supremacy* upon any terms : and, as she had much greater abilities for governing, so she applied herself more to promote the strength and glory of her dominion, than Mary did : but she had as much of the bigot and tyrant in her as her sister, though the object of that bigotry was prerogative and not religion.”

Elizabeth was at Hatfield when her sister died, but proceeded to London forthwith, being met at Highgate by the mayor, aldermen, sheriffs, and commonalty of the city, who conducted her with great pomp to the Tower. The new queen afterwards rode through the city to Westminster, the recorder on her way addressing her in the name and behalf of his fellow citizens.

At the beginning of this reign London was visited by a terrific storm, the lightening striking the spire of St. Paul's church set it on fire, which ended in its being consumed. In 1563 the plague again appeared in London occasioning a frightful mortality.

Manufactories and commerce notwithstanding visibly made progress. The English company of merchant adventurers obtained a charter from Elizabeth in the year 1564, constituting them a body-politic, with many important privileges. Drinking glasses had been introduced, and were now manufactured in the city. They were made principally in Crutched Friars and the Savoy, Strand. Thomas Matthews, a cutler on Fleet Bridge, Holborn, has the credit of being the first manufacturer of table knives in England.

The city, likewise, was laid under great obligation to Sir Thomas Gresham, who, in 1566, built the Exchange, subsequently honored with the appellation of Royal, by command of Elizabeth. This property at his decease was left to the citizens for ever.

The number of foreigners now residing in the suburbs of the metropolis being very great, the jealousy of the citizens became aroused. They therefore thought it expedient to present a remonstrance to the queen on this subject, and her Majesty hereupon issued a proclamation, which was soon after repeated, forbidding the erection of any new buildings within three miles from the city gates; unfinished buildings or new foundations were ordered to be pulled down. Other restrictive orders were likewise made.

The quantity of water in London being scanty, a tide machinery was, about the year 1582, erected at London bridge, for the supply of the citizens with that important necessary of life. This was done at the expence of the corporation, and under the superintendence of Mr. Peter Maurice, an ingenious foreigner. The water-works were placed at the north-west end of the bridge, where they remained until within the last few years.

The citizens of London were never more prompt in rendering public service than during the reign of this sovereign. On the threatened invasion by the Spaniards, the city furnished supplies of money, ships, and soldiers. Sir Thomas Sutton, a London merchant, secured all the money in the bank of Genoa, for the service of his country, though at an immense loss to himself. The corporation, in 1589, lent the queen £15,000, and supplied her with one thousand men ; and only five years afterwards they fitted out six ships of war and three frigates, well stored with provisions for six months, to which generous grant was added four hundred and fifty soldiers fully accoutred. The Spaniards threatening a second invasion, these grants were repeated, with the addition of an honorary guard for the queen from the most eminent of their body.

In the year 1600 the governor and company of London trading to the East Indies, obtained their first charter. The alledged reason for its formation was the exorbitant price of pepper and other spices, charged by the Dutch East India company. How little was it to be expected that a company originating for the purpose of cheapening the price of spices, should have been the means of giving to the British crown the domination of the continent of India, from the mighty Himalaya to Cape Comorin, and from the Indus to the Brahmapootra !

Two things during this reign well characterize the sovereign. Notwithstanding all that the citizens did, yet the queen, far from granting an additional charter or immunities to the city of London, did not condescend, during a long reign of forty-five years, to confirm those which had been granted by her royal predecessors. The second fact is, that throughout

Elizabeth's reign, the London prisons were always filled with papists and puritans. One example only can be given.

In 1592 a congregation of dissenters were found at Islington, sixty-nine of whom were committed to prison, sixty-six men and three women. Of these ten were confined in the Gatehouse, five in the Fleet, eight in Newgate, nineteen in Bride-well, twelve in the Clink, five in the White Lion, four in Wood-street compter, and six in the Poultry compter. Ten presently “died like rotten sheep, some of the disease of the prison, some for want, and others of infectious distempers.” These were sacrificed to an act of parliament (23rd of Eliz.) entitled, “An Act for the punishment of persons obstinately refusing to come to church,” &c. This act required that all persons should come to church on pain of being committed to prison without bail, and not to be discharged but on signing a declaration of their willingness to submit to her majesty’s power or authority in causes ecclesiastical; or if such declaration was refused, the parties were required to abjure the realm, and go into perpetual banishment. And if they did not depart within the limited time, or if they afterwards returned without the queen’s licence, they were to suffer death without benefit of clergy.

Elizabeth died in a state of mind almost as wretched as her predecessor, and in her seventieth year. She was the last sovereign of the house of Tudor.

LONDON DURING THE REIGNS OF THE HOUSE OF STUART.

JAMES the First of England, and Sixth of Scotland, was the son of the ill-fated Mary, Queen of Scots. He ascended the throne of England the 23rd of March, 1603, being proclaimed by the lord mayor in Cheapside with the usual ceremony; but the plague, which now violently raged in the city, prevented that visit to the citizens which his majesty would otherwise have paid. The following year the king was entertained by the citizens in the most sumptuous manner.

The king, in 1607, was pleased to confer certain important privileges upon London, which were confirmed by royal charter. A second and extended charter was soon afterwards given, by which the civic jurisdiction was greatly enlarged, comprising within its limits Duke's place, Great and Little St. Bartholomew, Blackfriars, Whitefriars, and Cold Harbour. A proviso exempted the inhabitants of Blackfriars and Whitefriars from contribution of scot, watch, and ward, and from the offices of constable and scavenger.

Two years afterwards, the citizens were honoured by having the whole province of Ulster, in Ireland, assigned to them by the crown. The conditions imposed were, that colonies should be established in that county, under the government of a committee of aldermen and common council-men. In conformity with this grant, the citizens colonized the town of Derry, to which they gave the name of Londonderry. The town of Coleraine was likewise built. To these two towns a deputation was afterwards sent from the corporation, for the purpose

of presenting them each with a rich sword of state. A society still exists called the Irish Society of London.

Sir Hugh Middleton during this reign did a most important service to London, by bringing the water of the New River into it. This great work, begun in 1608, was happily completed in 1613. The last royal charter was likewise granted this same year to the citizens, by which was confirmed the right of the admeasurement of coals in the port of London, from Yantlet-creek to Staines-bridge.

About this time, James published his *Book of Sports*, the purport of which was to encourage the practice of certain sports on the Lord's day. The lord-mayor and citizens took such umbrage at this act of the king's, that one of his majesty's carriages driving through the city during the time of divine service, was stopped by order of the city authorities. The king at first expressed his anger at this indignity offered to him, but some little concession being made, he was pleased to pass it over.

St. Paul's cathedral having continued for some time in a dilapidated state, occasioned by the accident already mentioned, the king signified his intention of visiting the church prior to the necessary repairs being entered upon, and which were afterwards so splendidly executed by that skilful architect, Inigo Jones. Accordingly, on Sunday, March 26th, 1620, the king, the prince of Wales, and many of the chief nobility, went in great state from Whitehall to the city. The royal party was met at Temple-bar by the lord-mayor, aldermen, sheriffs, and the rest of the corporation, who escorted his majesty to church, and attended during the performance of divine service.

The reign of James throughout was on the whole pacific; yet his high notions of prerogative, coupled with considerable

pusillanimity, had already prepared the elements of that disruption, which soon after overturned the throne of his successor.

The king, moreover, like his predecessor, thought the increase of the buildings in London to be an evil, and sought, by proclamation, to restrain that which in its own nature is irresistible. London, in spite of all royal prohibitions, continued to encroach upon the neighbouring villages, making its immediate suburbs more compact and united. Paved footways in the principal streets were, about this period, becoming common, especially in the principal thoroughfares.

James's wars were singularly calamitous. Indeed it was only towards the latter part of his reign that peace was interrupted, when his attempts upon the Palatinate entirely failed. His notions also of strengthening his kingdom, by marrying his son to a foreign princess, of the catholic persuasion, was a great error, and tended to hasten the overthrow of the throne itself. The king was much chagrined by the result of his foreign enterprise, a tertian ague seized him, which soon terminated fatally. James died at Theobalds, March the 27th, 1625, and was succeeded by his only son, Charles I., now in the twenty-fifth year of his age.

Charles appeared anxious to meet his parliament at an early period; but even his coronation and public entry into London were prevented by the plague, which again raged in the metropolis.

Just about the same time, Henrietta Maria, the daughter of Henry IV., king of France, arrived in England, to whom Charles had been already married by proxy. This princess, though the daughter of a great monarch, and a female of considerable personal beauty and accomplishments, was very

unsuitable for a young Protestant prince, placed in a difficult position, which required both firmness and discretion. Her majesty, being a Roman Catholic, was alone sufficient to render her an object of dislike to the people; and the more so, when it was known that the king had consented to place the management of his children, should she have a family, under her control, until they were thirteen years of age.

On the 18th of June, in the first year of the king's reign, the parliament assembled. Prerogative was now at a discount; the king's marriage had produced great jealousy in the minds of the people, the national treasury was also empty, and the royal necessities great. In the present house of commons, likewise, it soon became evident, were a set of men of uncommon capacity, and well adapted for guiding the deliberations of parliament. Animated with a warm regard to national liberty, and beholding with the deepest regret that unbounded power which was exercised, they determined, at the present juncture of affairs, and at all hazards, to reduce the royal prerogative within reasonable bounds. It was in consequence determined, that no supplies should be granted to the king, without extorting concessions in favor of civil and religious liberty. All this appeared so reasonable, that under a limited monarchy it might be supposed that the misunderstanding would soon have been at an end. Charles, however, had been brought up with lofty ideas of monarchical power, sanctioned by the uniform precedents in favor of prerogative; he, therefore, regarded any opposition to the prescriptive rights of the crown as criminal and traitorous. The plague continuing to rage in London, the king assembled the parliament at Oxford; but finding the same determination amongst the members of the house to continue their sitting, his majesty,

unhappily expressed his displeasure, by their dissolution. Thus unpropitiously did the new reign begin.

In these views of politics, the citizens of London, and their representatives in parliament, acquiesced. It must be said of the city of London, that, although her loyalty to her sovereign has always been great; yet that from time almost immemorial to the present hour, she has not been backward, on all befitting occasions, to assert her rights and liberties. King Charles seems to have been aware of this fact; for, on meeting with a disappointment from the parliament, he demanded a loan of money from the citizens; but which being received with some hesitation on the part of the citizens, Charles committed twenty of their number to Newgate. Indeed, during the whole of this reign, there appears no end to the disputes which were continually occurring between the king and the citizens.

In 1636, an order was sent from the privy council, commanding the lord-mayor, and aldermen, to shut up the shops in Goldsmith's Row, being the south side of Cheapside and Lombard-street, then occupied by goldsmiths. This not being complied with, it was backed by a decree of the court of star-chamber. The city authorities, notwithstanding, paid no regard to these orders; the king sending farther orders, and farther threats, but which were equally disregarded. Thus did the king's mis-rule soon become as contemptible as it was tyrannical.

The levying of ship-money fell particularly heavy upon London, being the principal emporium for import and export trade. At first, it was regarded as an expedient to answer cases of emergency, although generally thought to be illegal; but at length John Hampden, Esq., brought this matter to trial in the court of exchequer, where it was argued for twelve

successive days. All England looked on with the utmost anxiety; and at length this celebrated trial ended by sentence being given in favour of the crown. All the judges of England, excepting Crook and Hutton, gave it for law, “*that the king might levy taxes on the subject, by writ under the great seal, without grant of parliament, in cases of necessity, or when the kingdom was in danger; of which danger and necessity his majesty was the sole and final judge; and that by law his majesty might compel the doing thereof in case of refusal or refractoriness.*” This venal decision produced despair; a general opinion prevailed that *magna charta* and the *English constitution* were at an end.

In the midst of these disputes, the king, for a large sum of money, granted the corporation a charter, confirmatory of all their preceding charters, from William the Conqueror to his own time, together with additional immunities. But Charles was so little to be depended upon, that in about two years afterwards, the charter was violated, and a suit in the court of star-chamber commenced against the lord-mayor and citizens. By the sentence of this iniquitous court, the possessions which the citizens had purchased in Ireland were taken from them, and they amerced in £50,000.

His majesty’s advisers, more particularly Archbishop Laud, having intemperately involved the king in a quarrel with the Scots, for the quixotic purpose of imposing episcopacy and a liturgy upon them; the citizens were required to raise a large body of men to serve against them. This unpopular measure so raised the ire of the London apprentices, that they proceeded in a body to Lambeth, for the purpose of inflicting summary vengeance upon the archbishop; but being disappointed in this, and joined by a large number of the populace, they rushed into

St. Paul's church, where the high court of commissioners was sitting, drove them out of the cathedral, and leaping upon the benches, exclaimed, "No bishops! No high commission!" These turbulent scenes were of constant recurrence in London during the twelve years that Charles attempted to govern without a parliament. The differences between the king and the citizens encreasing, his majesty at length forbade the citizens from presenting any petition to him in future concerning the redress of grievances.

A parliament was at length convened, and the king having yielded to the discontents of the Scots, went into Scotland. On his return to London, his majesty paid a visit to the city, where he was received with great distinction by the lord mayor and corporation. The king, after dining at Guildhall, is said to have embraced the mayor very cordially at parting, having invited him and his brother aldermen to his palace, at White-hall, the ensuing day. Here the lord mayor was made a baronet, and all the aldermen who attended were knighted. Yet this cordiality must have been more apparent than real, for, almost immediately after, the king deprived the citizens of their command over the tower, appointing an officer of his own to govern it.

The king's measures had, for a long period, been so very arbitrary, that it became impossible for the city of London not to make common cause with the patriotic members of the house of commons. Indeed, one of the first petitions presented to the house was from the city of London, and adjacent counties, by alderman Pennington, one of the city members, in December 1640, and well known by the name of *the root and branch petition*. It sheweth, that "whereas, the government of archbishops and lord bishops, deans and archdeacons,

&c., with their courts and ministrations in them, have proved prejudicial, and very dangerous to the church and commonwealth; they themselves having formerly held, that they have their calling immediately from Christ, which is against the laws of this kingdom, and derogatory to his majesty's state royal. We, therefore, most humbly pray and beseech this honourable assembly, the premises considered, that the said government, with all its dependencies, *roots* and *branches*, may be abolished; and all the laws in their behalf made void, and that the government, according to God's word, may be rightly placed amongst us," &c.

When the king subsequently, most imprudently, entered the house of commons, for the purpose of seizing five of its members, they fled for protection into the city. His majesty, resorting thither, demanded of the common council that the impeached members should be delivered up, which the citizens, with great firmness, refused. This refusal was delivered to the king in the way of remonstrance, from the mayor, aldermen, and common council. A committee being appointed by the house to deliberate on this breach of privilege, their meetings took place in the city, and after the delay of a few days, the five accused members were accompanied to Westminster by a vast number of people, and took their seats amidst the loudest acclamations of triumph. The city trained bands formed part of this procession, and were afterwards retained as a sort of body guard to the house.

In the impeachment of Strafford and Laud, the citizens fully concurred; yet, when Charles left the metropolis, for the purpose of making preparation for an appeal to arms, the corporation refused to grant the large supply of men and money which the parliament demanded. The house of com-

the king's judges; but, after his condemnation and death, a considerable opposition was made by many of the aldermen to proclaim a commonwealth. The opinion of the city was still more strongly expressed when the house of commons, assuming the supreme power, and commanding that the abolition of monarchy should be publicly proclaimed, the lord mayor not only peremptorily refused, but submitted also to be degraded from his office, sent to the Tower, and fined in the large sum of £2000.

The government under Cromwell was of too firm a character not to be beneficial to a commercial city. The trade of London, during the civil war, had, to a certain extent, been neglected; but, on the return to peace, the metropolis obtained a greater importance than ever.

The citizens perceived that it was to their interest to be on good terms with the usurper, and he, in his turn, was solicitous of retaining their good offices, which desire mutually proved the means of union between them. Cromwell soon after, when about to go into Ireland, borrowed a large sum of money of them; and many of the more influential citizens accompanied him in that expedition.

The government of Cromwell having been somewhat matured, his installation into the high office which he had assumed, took place in 1653, at Whitehall. On this memorable occasion, the lord-mayor and corporation attended the ceremony, who being well received, they, in their turn, invited the Protector to a grand entertainment in Guildhall. This was so acceptable to Cromwell, that he returned thanks to his faithful citizens for their mark of esteem for him, conferring on the mayor, not perhaps very consistently, the kingly honour of knighthood. A good understanding between

Cromwell and the citizens of London continued, after this time, unbroken, during the protector's life.

London, it is evident, was never greater than under the government of Cromwell. The fleets sustained by the commonwealth at this time, covered every sea; and which had greatly contributed to the wealth of London. It became the general emporium for maritime affairs. It is, moreover, remarkable, that all the courts of Europe were anxious to be in alliance with the Protector; even the Ottoman Porte, and the Deyls of Tunis and Algiers, were obedient to his dictation.

An internal security likewise was now enjoyed, unknown at former periods. The odious star-chamber had been suppressed; and other means formerly adopted for the extortion of money, prohibited. Yet it must be confessed, that when it suited the Protector's purpose, he did not scruple to assert an arbitrary authority, above and beyond all law; so that the judges were subjected to his improper interference; and counsel, when executing their authorised duty, in the defence of their clients, were restrained. These are, doubtless, great blemishes in Cromwell's character. Still, even his enemies are ready to admit, that though he was austere and dictatorial to his opponents on all occasions, and to others, on some special accounts; yet that while his measures were firm and energetic, they were also mild and just. That Cromwell had many and great faults cannot, for a moment be doubted, the situation in which he had placed himself being one of extreme difficulty. But, if his general line of policy, civil and ecclesiastical, be compared with that of the pedantic James I.; or the imperious and vacillating Charles I.; or the profligate and reckless Charles II.; or the morose and bigotted James II.; the government of England, during

the protectorate, will be found to have been just and liberal ; laying beside a firm basis for public liberty which none of his successors dared openly to infringe.

Cromwell, it would seem, had taxed a firm constitution to the utmost. His mind having become in such an habitual state of excitement, that his bodily frame, though robust, sunk under it, and in the year 1658, and in the sixtieth of his age, he died. He was buried with every honour possible, the city authorities taking a leading part. The lord-mayor likewise proclaimed his son, Richard, his successor.

Whether Cromwell could have continued to hold the reins of government, had he lived, is probably doubtful ; but immediately on his demise, it became evident that some change in the executive government would shortly take place. Whatever excellences Richard Cromwell possessed, they were rather those of a private gentleman than those which a boisterous state of affairs required. Misunderstandings between the new Protector and the city soon arose ; so that the city authorities thought it necessary, without delay, to put their city into a state of defence. A council of state having directed General Monk to take possession of the city, he made some attempt so to do, employing that dissimulation for which he subsequently became so notorious. The citizens feeling no great confidence in the government of Richard, and the artful soldier having ingratiated himself into the good opinion of the citizens, they elected him major-general of their forces.

The wily Monk, and his partisans, perceiving that the restoration of the monarch might now be effected, privately sent messengers over to the exiled Charles, inviting his return. With their knowledge of what the Stuart dynasty had already done, and with a thorough knowledge of the habits and fa-

lessness of Charles, they, notwithstanding, determined to receive him as their king, without making any conditions whatever; a species of insane confidence, of which the nation soon afterwards had bitter cause to repent. Charles, in reply, sent over what were regarded gracious answers, first to his friends, and afterwards to the parliament. Better to maintain appearances, a letter was likewise addressed to the lord-mayor, aldermen, and common council, from the king; and they, forgetful both of the past and the present, responded to this communication by sending fourteen of their own body to Breda, where the monarch was then living, with a present of £10,000.

Charles II. landed at Dover; and, on the 29th of May, 1660, entered London. He was proclaimed in the city the very next day, by the lord-mayor and corporation, amidst the general and joyful acclamations of the deluded citizens. The king was pleased to receive the civic deputies who waited upon him most graciously, conferring upon them the honour of knighthood. He likewise, very properly, confirmed to the citizens their rights in sundry estates in Ireland, of which they had been most unjustly deprived by the late king; and which the corporation, and the twelve chief companies, still retain. A new charter was also given to the city, which, for its paramount importance, and from the word with which it begins, has been pre-eminently distinguished by the appellation of the *grand inspeximus charter*. The passive Richard Cromwell, the second Protector, had in the meantime quietly retired into private life. His soliloquy seems to have been—

" Ambition, cease ; the idle contest end ;
'Tis but a kingdom thou cans't win or lose,
And why must murder'd myriads lose their all,
(If life be all) ; why desolation lour
With famish'd frown on this affrighted ball,
That thou mayst flame the meteor of an hour ?"—*Mason.*

But although Monk had betrayed his country, no man going beyond him in dissimulation and falsehood, and though Charles had been recently reconciled to the Church of Rome, yet still had the king only have kept his word, and not have listened to those infuriated cavaliers who surrounded him, things might quietly have settled down, without either the shedding of human blood, or the employment of pains and penalties. But scarcely had the king returned, when the prisons were again filled by persons, whose conduct, if criminal, had been promised to be forgiven ; and, instead of a toleration in religion, the iniquitous act of uniformity was passed ; and ministers and congregations, differing from the established church, persecuted with relentless fury. And, as if this had not been bad enough, the king led a life of avowed lewdness, even coming to church, and the sacrament, from the apartments of his mistresses.

The nation, thus given over to profligacy, soon heard the voice of a reproving Providence. In May, 1665, London was visited, more severely than ever, by that dreadful scourge the plague, which committed frightful ravages. It commenced with an unusual drought, which parched up, and burnt the meadows adjoining London, occasioning a kind of murrain upon the cattle, followed by a general contagion or plague, which, when at its height, destroyed ten thousand persons in a week. The more healthy inhabitants fled into

the country, leaving the poor people to sufferings of the most fearful description. Trade was at a stand ; provisions could not be procured or brought within the city, but by the strenuous exertions of the civil magistrate, who, in fact, compelled the farmers and gardeners to bring the required supplies. A stranger passing through a neighbourhood was fled from as a malignant enemy. The shops and houses nearly throughout London were shut up ; and where the infection was raging, or even presumed to be raging, the doors were secured from without, so that egress or ingress could not be made ; a red cross was also painted upon the door, with an inscription over it,— “Lord have mercy upon us !” Every night carts were brought through the streets, a bellman proclaiming as they passed,— “Bring out your dead !” This direful malady continued to rage for nearly three quarters of a year. Besides those who died from disease, many perished from sheer neglect and want of food. It is believed, that not fewer than a hundred thousand persons must have perished in the metropolis and its immediate vicinity. Never had London before experienced so severe a calamity.

Yet, extraordinary as it may appear, Charles and his advisers, at this very time, were forging additional chains for his oppressed people. An act was passed, prohibiting dissenting clergymen from coming within five miles of any corporate town, or of any place where they had preached, under a penalty of fifty pounds, and six months imprisonment. “By ejecting” says Hume, (never the panegyrist of the Puritans), “the non-conforming clergy from their churches, and prohibiting all separate congregations, they had been rendered incapable of gaining any livelihood by their spiritual profession. And now, under cover of removing them from places where

their influence might be dangerous, an expedient was fallen upon to deprive them of all means of subsistence. Had not the spirit of the nation undergone a change, these violences were preludes to the most furious persecution."

Scarcely had the plague ceased, when a great part of the city was reduced to ruins by a most calamitous fire. Having already given a brief history of this dreadful conflagration, and of its renovating influence upon the re-building of London, (page 167) we need not here enlarge.

The parliament, criminally obsequious from the beginning of this reign, had now learnt, from woeful experience, that another and firmer line of conduct must be pursued. The Duke of York, the king's brother, from his attachment to popery, had become very unpopular, particularly among the citizens, who passed some stringent resolutions in reference to him. The king, disliking these proceedings of the corporation, proceeded to extremities. He issued a writ of *Quo Warranto*, to try the validity of the city charter, boldly asserting that its liberties and privileges were usurped. In 1683, a corrupt judge, chief justice Jones, pronounced the charter forfeited. The lord-mayor was degraded, and a new one appointed by the king, to remain only during the royal pleasure. Eight of the aldermen were likewise cashiered, the recorder was displaced, and the city dispossessed of all its rights and privileges.

During this same year, the execution of Lord William Russell took place in Lincoln's-inn Fields. That he was entirely without blame is certainly contrary to fact; but it is equally true that he was treated with a severity which his imprudent conduct did not merit. Lady Russell, his devoted wife, besought the pardon of her husband from Charles, on her knees and with tears, pleading the merits of her ancestors

in the royal cause. But all in vain ; the heart of Charles was sealed, and all importunity useless. When Lord Russell had bid farewell to his most excellent wife, he exclaimed,— “The bitterness of death is past !” Winding up his watch, he said,—“I have now done with time !—henceforth, let me think only of eternity !” Other victims, about the same time, miserably perished for offences, civil or religious, real or imaginary, committed, or said to be committed, against church or state.

The year 1683 is likewise memorable for the first delivery of letters by a penny post, now established in London, as a private speculation, by one Murray, an upholsterer. See our article on the Post Office, page 20.

Two years after this, London received a more important addition to her population and manufactories, than ever appeared likely to happen during such turbulent times. Louis XIV., king of France, that modern Nero, with as much folly as wickedness, had revoked an edict granted by Henry IV. to the Protestants of France, for the free exercise of their religion. This cruel and impolitic act drove nearly a million of French Protestants into foreign countries, carrying with them, besides an immense amount of money, the arts and manufactures of their native land. Towards England, as a Protestant country, thousands of these persecuted pilgrims directed their footsteps, and soon became permanently located in different parts of the metropolis. The silk weavers and dyers forming colonies at the east end of London, now known as Spitalfields and Bethnal Green ; whilst Clerkenwell and Soho, became the resting places of the watchmakers and jewellers. Never did catholic France expiate for this dreadful crime, until her clergy, the advisers and instigators of this wrong, were, in their

turn, driven to England, as to a place of safety, by the breaking out of that political volcano, the French revolution.

The reckless career of Charles II. terminated the same year. He died February the 6th, 1685, and was succeeded by his brother, the Duke of York, now James II.

No monarch ever threw away a crown more foolishly than James II., preferring, as he did, *a mere Romish bauble*, to the sovereignty of three kingdoms. He knew, on his accession, how much he was disliked, and if by one part of the country more than another, London was the spot. The new king had scarcely ascended the throne, when the attacks formerly made upon him and his religion, by the citizens, took full possession of his mulish heart; he determined to use caustics, where a prudent monarch would have employed emollients. Charles had, indeed, beaten the refractory citizens with whips; his successor, James, gave them scorpions. The unrighteous Charles had only seized upon the city charters; James infringed upon those of all the corporate companies, foolishly supposing that this would forward his premeditated plan of introducing popery. He first committed alderman Cornish, and afterwards, with the barbarity of a savage, ordered him to be hung opposite his house, at the end of King-street, Cheapside.

At length, James finding himself deserted by a great part of the nation, sought to conciliate the injured citizens. In 1688, he sent his chancellor, the infamous Jefferies, a man worthy of such a master, into the city, for the purpose of restoring the city charter. At a subsequent court of common council, an order was made to restore their privileges to the several companies, who had, most iniquitously, been deprived of them. These conciliatory measures had been withheld too long; and the pusillanimous James, hearing that William, Prince of

Orange, had landed at Torbay, in consequence of an invitation sent him from England, the king thought it prudent to retire from the country ; which was no sooner known than the throne was declared to be vacant. This voluntary banishment, happily for Great Britain, proved to be one of perpetual duration, both to himself and his male descendants.

In the meantime, the Prince of Orange was hastening towards London ; and the lords spiritual and temporal having assembled in Guildhall, signed and published their celebrated declaration, which sealed the liberties of the country. They next invited William to assist them in forming a free government, and settle the general administration of public affairs. This act was immediately responded to by the lord-mayor, aldermen, and common-council, who sent an address to the prince. The lieutenancy of the city likewise expressed similar sentiments. During this state of distraction, many tumults took place in the city ; and in one of them, Judge Jefferies being discovered at Wapping, in the disguise of a sailor, where he was waiting for an opportunity to escape to the continent, was seized by the populace, and so severely beaten, that he soon after died of the bruises which he had received.

A council was called by the Prince, of such persons who had been members of Charles II's. parliament, together with the lord-mayor, the aldermen, and fifty of the common council, to confer with him on the present important state of affairs. A loan of £200,000 was likewise procured from the city, to pay the arrears of the soldiers. At length the government was finally settled in the persons of William, Prince of Orange, and the Princess Mary, his consort, the daughter of the late monarch, as king and queen of England ; and these

arrangements being made, William and Mary were proclaimed in the city, with all the usual formalities.

The sovereign authority having thus been placed upon a constitutional footing, William soon evinced his anxiety that every reasonable concession should be made to his new subjects. The charter of Charles II. was restored, under the sanction of an act of parliament, and another granted them, in which the aldermen were constituted justices of peace within the city. All the ancient rights and privileges being likewise restored to the citizens. William was, moreover, anxious to give complete toleration to his Protestant subjects; and which was done by an act, passed in the first year of his reign.

The year 1691 is memorable for the establishment of that great corporation, the Bank of England, for the details of which we refer to our article on that subject, page 140. The lovely and amiable Mary, the queen consort, died during the same year, on which melancholy occasion the king was presented with an address of condolence, by the lord-mayor and corporation. Three years afterwards, on William's return from Holland, he visited the city, where he was received with the most cordial and sincere regards. By an unfortunate accident which happened in 1702, the king was so injured, that after a lapse of only a few days he died. William's connexion with England was, on the whole, not a very happy one. The quiet accession of the princess, Anne, daughter of James, immediately followed. During the following year, on the 16th of November, a violent storm of wind did great damage to the buildings of the metropolis, the loss being estimated at £2,000,000 sterling. Sir Christopher Wren, it is said, being informed that all his new steeples had been damaged, instantly replied, "Not that

of St. Dunstan's I am sure." The architect was right ; it was almost the only one which had escaped undamaged.

Upon the history of Anne's foreign wars we have no wish to enter. It may suffice to say that the celebrated battle at Blenheim was fought in 1704. The standards, and other military trophies, taken in this battle, being first deposited in the Tower; but by the queen's orders afterwards removed, in grand procession, to Westminster Hall, the city authorities forming part of the escort.

But a storm was now to visit London, which at first only deserved to be despised, though its results, nearly placed the constitution of the country in jeopardy. Dr. Henry Sacheverell, one of the chaplains of St. Saviour's, Southwark, preached a sermon at the summer assizes at Derby, and another on the 9th day of November, in the same year, (1709), in the cathedral church of St. Paul, in which, with a strain of violent declamation, he defended the doctrine of non-resistance, inveighed against the toleration of dissenters, declared the church in danger, and exhorted the people to *put on the whole armour of God.* Sir Samuel Garrard, the mayor of London, as weak a man as the preacher, encouraged this style of address, and the sermons were published under his patronage. The doctor was tried by order of the House of Commons, and found guilty ; but the slight punishment inflicted on him was rather a cause of triumph to himself, and the high Tory party which he represented, than any thing else.

An act of parliament was passed in 1710 for the erection of fifty new churches, within the cities of London and Westminster, the expense to be defrayed by a duty upon coals.

A change having been made in the ministry, and the influence of the Duke of Marlborough having ceased, negotia-

tions for a peace with France, had, for some time, been in progress, and which was effected in the year 1713. On this occasion, both Houses of Parliament came in procession into the city, and joined the lord-mayor and citizens in a public act of thanksgiving at St. Paul's.

There might have been some reason for the predilection which Queen Anne showed towards her own family ; but when the solemn pledges, which she gave on assuming the reins of government, are considered, it is melancholy to reflect that a sovereign should give countenance to those high church and state principles which placed the constitution itself in extreme peril. The queen's death, however, at this particular juncture, providentially put a stop to those measures which might otherwise have ended in a revolution :—the return of the Pretender, and the restoration of popery.

The queen died on the 1st of August, 1714; and who, though possessing many amiable qualifications, went down to the grave unlamented by every friend of the liberties of his country. Anne was the last sovereign of the house of Stuart. “ If any thing,” remarks Voltaire, in his *Siecle de Louis XIV.*, “ can justify a belief that a fatality exists which nothing can restrain, it is to be found in that continued series of misfortune which pursued the house of Stuart for more than three hundred years.—The first of the kings of Scotland having the name of James, after having been a prisoner in England for eighteen years, was assassinated, with his wife, by his own subjects ; James II., his son, at the age of twenty-nine, was killed in battle, fighting against the English ; James III., having been first imprisoned, was afterwards killed whilst fighting against his rebellious subjects ; James IV. was killed in a battle which he lost ; Mary Stuart, his grand-daughter, driven from her throne,

took refuge in England, where she was imprisoned for eighteen years, and at length tried and beheaded, by order of Elizabeth ; Charles I., grandson to Mary, was sold by the Scots, condemned to death by the English, and perished on the scaffold ; James II., his son, was driven from his kingdom ; his male successors having in vain attempted to recover the same.”

LONDON UNDER THE SOVEREIGNS OF THE HOUSE OF HANOVER.

THE accession of the House of Hanover is a memorable epoch in the history of Great Britain. Not so much for the talents which the kings of that illustrious house have displayed, as for the firm establishment of constitutional liberty which has been maintained, and for the gradual increase of the power and influence of the country.

George I., on the demise of the late queen, was forthwith proclaimed with the usual solemnities. Soon after the king’s arrival in England, he dined with the lord-mayor, at Guildhall, conferring a patent of baronetcy on the chief magistrate, and giving the honour of knighthood to the principal members of the corporation. His majesty likewise gave £1,000 to the poor debtors of the city.

It was generally believed, during the latter part of Queen Anne’s reign, that proceedings had been in progress in favour of the pretender ; and it soon became but too evident by overt acts, which were taking place in different parts of the north. The Earls of Mar, Derwentwater, Kenmuir, and others, levied troops, and were, for a time, encouraged by partial successes,

especially by the discomfiture of the royal army, at Prestonpans, near Edinburgh, in 1715; but at length this impolitic rebellion was suppressed, and the sanguinary arm of the law exerted with a needless severity. During this period of agitation, the city of London acted with its usual loyalty; and the citizens were amongst the foremost to assist the righteous cause of their newly chosen sovereign, both with men and money.

The house of convocation, at the commencement of the present reign, continued to evince the same Jacobinical principles which had marked its proceedings during the former reign. However necessary and desirable meetings of the clergy may be, they should always be tempered with prudence, and confined to subjects purely spiritual. The very contrary had been the disposition of the convocation. Principles antagonistic to civil and religious liberty had been, on several occasions, pertinaciously maintained; and which, by all classes of the community, should be regarded with extreme jealousy. At the period at which we have now arrived, the convocation thought proper to censure the publications of Dr. Hoadly, Bishop of Bangor, a procedure which the government stopped by a prorogation;—and strange to say, the convocation has never since been permitted to do any business. Thus has the whole body of the clergy been insulted for more than a century; and an injury inflicted upon every layman of the established church. Had a well regulated convocation been continued, the spurious doctrines of modern Tractarianism would not have defiled the Church of England as they have done, substituting sacraments and ceremonies for the scriptural doctrines of our Protestant reformation.

Many symptoms of disloyalty to the reigning family had, of

late, been apparent. In 1721, Dr. Atterbury, Bishop of Rochester, in consequence of information received by government, was apprehended and committed to the Tower, for having entered into a correspondence with the Pretender's party, in favour of the dispossessed family. Of his guilt there can be no doubt; yet, the manner in which he was proceeded against was highly objectionable. A bill of pains and penalties was passed, by which the prelate was deprived of all benefices, and outlawed. He left England in 1723, and settled in Paris; where, almost to the time of his death, his restless spirit was engaged in promoting rebellion in Scotland. Happy for the church had he never found a successor!

During the reign of George I. that notorious scheme of plunder, well designated the South-sea bubble, took place, bringing persons of all classes to utter ruin. In this national fraud some of his majesty's ministers were implicated.

In 1722, the Chelsea Water-works were established by authority of parliament, having for their object, the supply of the western suburb of London, now greatly increased, with water. By parliamentary enactment also, party walls in buildings were regulated; and water-spouts, overhanging the streets, interdicted.

The year 1727, is memorable as the beginning of the reign of George II., son of the late monarch, who died at Osuarburgh, in Germany. The lord-mayor and corporation proclaimed the new sovereign in the usual manner, having publicly congratulated him on his accession to the throne. The king and queen were afterwards entertained with great splendour and hospitality in Guildhall.

Improvements in the city now became numerous. In 1733, Fleet-ditch, which extended to Holborn, was arched over, and

Fleet-market erected on its site, which, however, was taken down in 1829, and converted into Farringdon-street. The New Farringdon-market, situate a little to the west of the old market, has, we regret to say, turned out a complete failure. In 1738, considerable opposition was made by the city against general excise laws projected by the *premier*, Sir Robert Walpole. This measure was ultimately abandoned; but Sir Robert had rendered himself so obnoxious, that his effigy was burnt in different parts of the city, amidst the acclamations of the excited populace. The minister disgraced himself by representing the citizens as *a set of sturdy beggars*. The corporation, in return, testified their contempt for him, by rejecting the senior alderman from the office of mayor, for having voted in Sir Robert's favour. Soon after this, the Mansion House and the Foundling Hospital were erected, as detailed in another part of our work.

The last of the city charters was granted by George II. in 1741. After reciting the former charters, granted to the city, by Charles II. and William and Mary, it constitutes all the aldermen, for the time being, justices of the peace, and makes the mayor, the recorder, and all those aldermen who have passed the chair, of the *quorum*.

In 1745, the country was put into a state of alarm by the erection of the rebel standard in Scotland. A loyal address was presented to his majesty by the citizens at the commencement of this unhallowed rebellion. The principal inhabitants of London enlisted themselves as volunteers, for the national defence. Large sums of money were also raised for supplying the royal army with warm woollen clothing. In this voluntary contribution the Quakers, though the opponents of war, thought it their duty to unite. The result of this struggle

proved most disastrous to the rebels. The battle of Culloden, near Inverness, decided the contest. The Pretender fled; and ultimately, almost by miracle, escaped to France. The numerous executions which followed, for ever stamped the names of those who ordered them with cruelty, if not with infamy.

The more general improvements in London may date their origin from the year at which we have now arrived. In 1760 Blackfriars-bridge was begun to be built. The committee of city lands, under the sanction of parliament, commenced the necessary work of widening and improving the streets. The east end of Crutched-friars was opened into the Minories. The city gates were also sold, and pulled down. During this same year, a congratulatory address was presented to the king, by the lord-mayor and corporation, on the completion of the conquest of Canada, by the capture of Montreal. The year 1760, is likewise remarkable for the accession of a native prince to the throne of the British realms, in the person of George III., his late majesty, George II., having died suddenly.

No reign is more distinguished in our history than that upon which we are now entering. Its duration, its political struggles, its foreign aggrandizements, and the great improvements in the metropolis, alike mark it as a memorable epoch. His majesty was in his twenty-first year when he ascended the throne, and reigned for sixty years. The mayor and corporation attended their new sovereign's coronation; and their majesties soon afterwards dined with them in Guildhall. No mark of respect, or testimony of joy, was wanting on the part of the citizens at this important period. The young monarch rendered himself popular by his opening speech delivered to parliament.

The first misunderstanding between the king and the citizens

was occasioned by the arrest of John Wilkes, by a general warrant, pronounced by the judges to be illegal. These disputes were of long continuance. The court party were ultimately obliged to give way. This dispute was one of deep interest, not on account of the individual concerned, but from the highly important principles which it involved.

About the year 1776, the Society for the Encouragement of the Arts, and the Royal Academy of Arts, were founded. To the former of these useful institutions the common council voted the sum of £500. The first stone of the prison of Newgate was laid during the year, by Sir William Beckford, then lord-mayor. The merits of this distinguished individual were afterwards acknowledged by his fellow-citizens, by a statue being erected to his memory in Guildhall.

About the same time, the corporation, anxious for the maintenance of their ancient rights, refused to execute the warrants of the House of Commons; denying the house any authority in the city. The commons resenting this, committed Crosby, the mayor, and Alderman Oliver, to the Tower. A vote of thanks was given them by the common council, and a committee appointed to conduct their defence at the cost of the city.

In the year 1777, the contention between the British colonies in America and the mother country, began to assume a serious aspect. The city, on this important subject, took part against the measures of government; and, as the civil war which raged between England and her colonies increased, the citizens, in every possible way, evinced their opposition to a farther continuance of so unnatural a warfare. The cause of the Americans soon triumphed; and, in 1783, the United States having been acknowledged free and independent, peace was happily restored.

The riots which disgraced the city in 1780, are too remarkable not to be noticed. Lord George Gordon, a weak man, of heated imagination, was the principal instigator of this disastrous outbreak. The alleged cause was the removal of certain disabilities under which the Roman Catholics had laboured. The stupid cry of the “Church in danger,” became the watch-word of the infuriated mob. The pusillanimity of Kennett, the mayor, allowed these scenes of riot to make such progress, that the whole city seemed to be endangered. Military interference at length silenced the rioters.

The loss of the colonies is said sensibly to have affected the health of the king, his mental powers becoming deranged. The corporation and members of the city took part, with the ministry, in the regency question ; but on the 10th of March, 1789, his majesty’s restoration was officially announced, to the no small joy of a loyal people : illuminations and congratulations soon followed. His majesty attended a public service in St. Paul’s cathedral, on the 23rd of April, to return thanks for his recovery. The queen, the royal family, both houses of parliament, and the mayor and corporation, accompanied his majesty on this interesting occasion.

Our limits forbid enlargement. We must content ourselves with remarking, that at the beginning of this reign, no buildings existed between Cavendish-square, then newly finished, and Marylebone. In 1764, the site of Portman-square was marked out, although not finished until twenty years afterwards. In 1770 the continuation of Harley-street was begun, and soon after, Mansfield-street and Portland-place. Stratford-place was built in 1774, on ground belonging to the city of London, called Conduit-mead. Cumberland-place was begun in 1775, and Manchester-square the year after. From

1786 to 1792, buildings of every description increased with rapidity. The Duke of Portland's property, in Marylebone, was let on leases ; and this extensive parish greatly increased. Lisson-green was also largely built upon, and the estate of the Duke of Bedford became gradually covered with magnificent streets and squares.

Of the effect of the French war, which began in 1793, it is foreign to our purpose to enter. It may be sufficient to say, that during this arduous and unprecedented struggle, the city of London was never wanting, on the one hand, in loyalty to her sovereign, or unmindful, on the other, of those rights and privileges which she possessed. Liberal politics have ever characterised the metropolis of the British empire. The career of the premier, Pitt, was jealously watched : the measures of that distinguished statesman being regarded with more than suspicion. The times were ominous. Nothing could exceed the excitement which London presented during the state trials of 1794. Rumours of conspiracies against the person of the king were either, it is asserted, wickedly or wantonly propagated, by the agents of the ministry. The French revolution, that frightful and moral volcano, every where produced a political frenzy. At this crisis, Hardy, Horne Tooke, and others, were arraigned for high treason, although no one was credulous enough to believe in their guilt. An extract from Mr. Erskine's speech on Horne Tooke's trial will show the malignity which accompanied these proceedings. Alluding to Hardy, who had just been acquitted, the eloquent advocate says,—“ *I stood here as counsel for a lowly, obscure mechanic, known only to persons obscure like himself, and I had to contend with what no man in England ever before had to contend with: I had to contend, in the first place, with the vast and*

extensive authority and influence of the crown of England: I will not, after the late verdict, call it the crushing authority. I had to contend against the dear, just, and natural interest which the subjects of this country must and ought to have in the preservation of the chief magistrate, appointed to execute the laws. I had to struggle with the more generous and benevolent interest characteristic of Englishmen, for the life of the prince, to whom no personal blame is imputable, and who suffers more than any of his subjects from the enormous abuses in the government. I had to struggle with this under circumstances peculiarly adverse; under an alarm propagated in part by honest zeal and enthusiasm against the societies whose acts I am defending, but propagated also under the detestable domineer of the lowest and blackest hypocrisy which ever degraded the human character; the community being partly bribed, partly tempted, and partly duped, to descry what had been formerly held up as meritorious. I had to fight with this, not in the face of an enlightened people in an ordinary season, but at a time when the face of the earth was drawn into convulsions; when mighty revolutions were shaking the world; when bad men were trembling for what ought to follow, and good men for what ought not; when the very name of man as having any political rights was a supposed dagger at the throat; when all the principles of our free constitution, under the impulse of a delusive, or wickedly-infused terror, seemed to be trampled under foot. But under all this pressure, I could have looked up for protection, under other circumstances; I could, as representing one of the people in a fearful extremity, have looked up to the representatives of the people; to that mighty tribunal above all law, and the parent of all the protection which the law affords to the subject; I could have looked up to the Commons of England, to

hold up its shield before the subject against the crown. But in this case that shield of the subject, I found a sharp and destroying sword in the hands of the enemy ; the protecting Commons was itself, by corruption and infatuation, the accuser; instead of standing up for the subject, it acted as an Old Bailey solicitor, to prepare the briefs for the crown. The whole cause had been read from the reports of the Commons ; no original labours of theirs, but collected from the files of newspapers, which every man had seen in every coffee-house for years together ; I had, therefore, to contend against an impeachment without the justice of such a proceeding. When a man, though a commoner, is impeached, he is sent before the Lords for trial, as a privilege, because all the Commons are supposed, in law, to be pledged by the accusation of their representatives. The Lords, therefore, as being a balance against the Commons, is the refuge of an Englishman so impeached. But for this poor man there was no refuge : the Lords themselves were joint accusers, private lords in office prejudged the cause, and insolently dictated what judgments judges ought to give, and juries to pronounce. I had, beside all this, to contend with an army of the most learned men in the profession, with all the weight and trappings of station. I had to wade through matter, which not only no mind can investigate, or bodily strength support to state, but to THE UTTER DISGRACE AND EXTINCTION OF ENGLISH CRIMINAL JUSTICE, WHICH NO PORTER COULD CARRY ON HIS SHOULDERS. I had to contend with a case which the judges declare to be so new, that they were obliged to try experiments upon the legal constitution to find a way of trying it.' The result of these horrible trials were considered a great triumph over oppression and corruption.

Still, on all great national occasions, London was foremost to show its zeal. The news of the earlier naval victories of

Howe, St. Vincent, and Duncan, were rapturously received by the citizens, and their joy demonstrated by splendid illuminations. In 1797, when the king, his family, and the parliament went in procession to St. Paul's, to return public thanks, the mayor and city authorities performed their part in it. In like manner, when France threatened this country with an invasion, such was the patriotic feeling evinced, that twenty-seven thousand and seventy-seven effective volunteers were raised in London and its immediate suburbs alone. Neither were the expressions of the warmest attachment to the sovereign wanting, when upon the king's entrance on the fiftieth year of his reign, (1810,) a jubilee was celebrated in commemoration of that event.

In the year 1811, the reign of George III. virtually ended; his son, then Prince of Wales, and afterwards George IV., being invested with the regency. Whatever demerit may attach to the government of this prince, either as regent or sovereign, certain it is, that this period may be regarded as the Augustan age for English buildings. During the short period of twenty years, during which the regency and reign of George IV. lasted, the city of London has, like ancient Rome, been converted from brick into marble. The metropolis had for some years been gradually extending its limits. Southwark had joined itself almost to Westminster, by buildings in St. George's Fields; and to the north-westward, Camden-town, Somer's Town, and Portland-town, had arisen almost imperceptibly. In the eastern suburb of London, buildings had spread over Whitechapel-road to Bow, Stepney, Shadwell, and Poplar. The London, St. Katherine's, and the East and West India Docks, had been constructed. The spaces between Hackney, Bethnal-green, and Mile-end had likewise been

built upon. But in the western districts of London the architectural display surpasses any thing which had preceded it. The removal of Exeter Change, the spacious opening called Trafalgar-square, and the buildings in the immediate locality, form important improvements in West Strand. Neither should Hungerford Market, or the rebuilding of Covent-garden Market be overlooked. The removal of Fleet Market, and the erection of the New Post Office are likewise worthy of record. But that which most merits our attention is the magnificent scale of building which has been completed on the crown lands by the removal of Carlton House, and the erection of Carlton-terrace, Waterloo-place, Regent-street, and the various magnificent terraces and villas in the Regent's Park. These for size and beauty are beyond praise. In the park itself we may just mention the Colosseum, St. Katherine's Hospital, and the Zoological Gardens; together with the enlarged and improved plots of ground open for public use, which make this beautiful locality eminently attractive. To these may be added, the Queen's Palace, at Pimlico, with all its alterations and defects, and the beautiful grounds before it; the newly built squares in the same locality, such as those of Belgrave, Eaton, Lowndes, and others. The many splendid buildings west of Tyburn are still in a state of progress, doing honour alike to the proprietors, the architects, and the builders.

London is farther greatly indebted to science for many of its improvements. Soon after the beginning of the present century gas began to be employed for the lighting of buildings. In 1807 it was introduced into London! Pall-mall being the first street lighted with gas. Improvement after improvement in its manufacture followed; and company after company established for promoting its use; until now the whole of the

metropolis and its environs are every night cheered with a blaze of brilliant light. About the same period the use of rail-roads began. The Surrey Railway was the first constructed in the neighbourhood of London, (1801); but now, with the addition of locomotive engines, the United Kingdom is intersected with nearly two hundred railroads. This sudden alteration in our mode of travelling has produced many extraordinary and unexpected changes in a variety of ways; some for the better, others for the worse. Steam navigation, moreover, having been first tried on the Hudson river in the United States, and on the Clyde in Scotland, was, in 1813, introduced in England, the first steam-boat plying for hire being the Margery, and running from London to Gravesend. The number of steamers now on the Thames is almost incredible.

In 1814, the long-continued continental war was brought to an end. The Emperor of Russia, and the King of Prussia, with many other distinguished foreigners, visited London, and were entertained in Guildhall, in company with the Prince Regent, with the utmost imaginable splendour. The citizens shewed them every mark of respect; and evinced their high satisfaction at the cessation of hostilities.

The marriage of the Princess Charlotte, the only child of George IV., with Prince Leopold of Saxe Coburg, in 1816, was regarded by the loyal city of London, and by the country at large, as a great national event. It pleased God, however, in November of the following year, to remove her royal highness, by death, a few hours only after she had given birth to a still-born infant prince. Never was a more sincere lament witnessed than on this mournful occasion. Every family felt as though bereaved of a member of their own household.

The Prince Regent ascended the throne in 1820, on the

death of his aged father. He had, unhappily, rendered himself very unpopular, and an attempt had previously been made upon his life, by the firing of a pistol, as he was returning from opening the Parliament; two balls having perforated the glass of his carriage. To render bad, worse, a suspension of the *habeas corpus* act followed. The Cato-street mock-conspiracy against the king's life happened the same year, and the blood of these paltry miscreants was shed. This was a melancholy beginning of a new reign. The popular dislike to the sovereign was more generally evinced on the return of the ill-fated Caroline, consort of George IV., to this country. On the very evening of her arrival, a message from the king was delivered to both Houses of Parliament, demanding an inquiry into her alleged criminal conduct whilst abroad. A bill of pains and penalties was introduced, but which, after a lengthened examination of witnesses, was, by the ministers, abandoned. This was regarded as the defeat of a persecution against the devoted queen. All classes of society sympathized with her; not because she was pure as "unsunned snow," but because her vindictive husband was not in a moral condition "to cast the first stone at her." The coronation quickly followed, from which she was heartlessly excluded. This proved her death-blow. She was taken ill a few days after, and died. But the king's vengeance pursued her even after death. Orders were given that the funeral procession should pass along the New-road, Paddington, in its way to the continent, instead of through the city, the direct line of road. The British populace determined it should be otherwise. The objectionable line of road, during the preceding night, was broken up and rendered impassable; and on the procession reaching Cumberland-gate, Hyde-park, the assembled multitude, offering opposition to the military, were

fired upon, and British blood shed. The king's malignity was still unsatisfied. Sir Richard Baker, the chief of the police, and General Wilson were both cashiered ; the former for a breach of orders, and the latter for taking part, as was supposed, in this popular movement.

Severe agricultural distress, with much discontent in England, and serious disturbances in Ireland, marked the year 1822. The great commercial crisis, which fell so heavily on London, took place in 1825. The year 1828 is memorable for the repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts—those scandalous statutes of olden times. The next year witnessed another act of justice—the emancipation of Roman Catholics. The metropolitan police force was likewise first introduced during the same year.

George IV. had for some time lived in great seclusion at Windsor Castle, out of health ; but, in the early part of 1830, his illness assumed a more serious character, and on the morning of the 26th of June, the awful summons to appear before a righteous Judge arrived, the king exclaiming—*this is death !* The same day his brother, William IV., was proclaimed.

At the time of the new sovereign's accession a wide spread popular uneasiness prevailed, numerous incendiary fires happening in various places. Even in London, the lord-mayor had such fears of insubordination, that he ventured to give an opinion, by many believed to be a very foolish one, that the person of the sovereign would be placed in jeopardy, should he venture to come into the city. In consequence of this, the king declined dining with the mayor and corporation in Guildhall.

His Majesty, however, accompanied by the queen, opened the new London Bridge, on the 1st of August, 1831. A

commodious and magnificent pavilion was erected for the accommodation of their majesties, the royal suite, and the civic authorities. The arrangements having been made with great judgment, and the weather proving very fine, the numerous thousands dispersed in the afternoon, delighted with the gay scene which they had witnessed.

One of the most memorable events of William's reign, was the passing of the Reform Bill. This important measure occupied the public mind for nearly two years. Twice were ministers beaten on this question ; but such stringent measures, it is understood, were threatened, that on the 4th of June, 1832, the Lords passed the bill by a large majority. During the next year followed the abolition of colonial slavery, the reform of the poor laws, and the reform of the Irish church.

King William IV. died at Windsor, after a short illness, on the 20th of June, 1837. He was succeeded by her present Majesty, Queen Victoria, WHOM MAY IT PLEASE ALMIGHTY GOD LONG TO PRESERVE AND BLESS ! LONG ALSO MAY THE METROPOLIS OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE FLOURISH ; AND WHILE HER MAJESTY IS WATCHING OVER ALL THE INTERESTS OF HER VAST EMPIRE, SACRED AND CIVIL, REFORMING ANY ABUSE IN EITHER, MAY SHE LIKEWISE CONTINUE TO BE THE SPECIAL PATRONESS OF HER ANCIENT AND LOYAL CITY OF LONDON !

THE END.

